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SUMMARY
OF THE
ADMINISTRATION
OF
LORD HARDINGE OF PENSHURST
VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA.

November 1910—March 1916.



DELHI
SUPERINTENDENT GOVERNMENT PRINTING, INDIA
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SUMMARY OF THE ADMINISTRATION
OF
LORD HARDINGE OF PENSHURST,

Viceroy and Governor-General of India,

November 1910—March 1916.

HOME DEPARTMENT.

I

EXECUTIVE.

THE most striking and memorable of the administrative measures carried out by the Government of India during the period under review were the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi, and the consequent redistribution of territory in the Lower Provinces of the Bengal Presidency. These changes, which were announced by His Majesty the King-Emperor in person on the occasion of the Coronation Darbar at Delhi on the 12th December 1911, included the creation of a Governorship in Council to administer the five Bengali-speaking divisions of Bengal, the constitution of Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur into a separate province under a Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and the restoration of the Chief Commissionership of Assam. Later on, a new province was formed of Delhi and its environs, and placed under the administration of a Chief Commissioner directly subordinate to the Government of India. Dramatic and unexpected as was His Majesty's announcement of these reforms, the proposals that initiated them had been the outcome of earnest and exhaustive deliberations on the part of Lord Hardinge's Government. They were, however, kept secret, for some time after they had received the approval of the Secretary of State, in order to utilize to the full the unique opportunity of the presence of His Majesty the King-Emperor at Delhi for the pronouncement of what the Government of India unhesitatingly described as one of the most weighty decisions ever taken since the establishment of British rule in India. The Government of India's despatch, dated the 25th August 1911, and that of Lord Crewe, dated the 1st November 1911, have since been made public, and in them may be read the reasons which prompted the Government of India to put forward their proposals and His Majesty's Government to accept them.

Transfer of the capital of India to Delhi and reorganization of the provinces of Bengal.

These far-reaching changes were accepted in their entirety by the Secretary of State in his despatch of the 1st November 1911. On the 1st April 1912 Lord Carmichael of Skirling, previously Governor of Madras, took his seat as the first Governor of Bengal, Sir Charles Stuart Bayley, previously Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam, assumed charge of the office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bihar and Orissa, and Sir Archdale Earle, formerly Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, became Chief Commissioner of Assam. An Executive Council was created in the new Governorship from the outset, and on the 1st of August 1912 a similar body was provided for the Government of Bihar and Orissa.

Completion of the changes announced at Delhi in 1911.

On the 1st October 1912 the new province of Delhi, consisting of the old Delhi *tahsil* and the *thana* of Mahrauli, was removed from the control of the Punjab Government and placed under the local administration of a Chief Commissioner. About 60 villages were subsequently added to the enclave from the adjoining district of Meerut in the United Provinces. Mr. W. M. Hailey was appointed the first Chief Commissioner of the new province.

The Government of India took up their permanent residence in Delhi as the winter capital of India on the 23rd December 1912.

Legislative
Councils.
Revision of the
regulations.

The "Reformed" Imperial and Provincial Legislative Councils came into existence in the winter of 1909. In January 1910 Lord Minto's Government called for a report from local Governments on the working of the new regulations, and asked for suggestions for the amendment of the regulations in any particulars in which they had been found defective. The replies of local Governments were considered by a special committee of the Government of India in September 1911, which had before it, besides the correspondence from local Governments, certain other proposals which had come before the Government of India independently, and, in particular, suggestions which had arisen out of a debate in the Imperial Council upon a resolution moved by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya in January 1911. In accordance with the recommendations of the committee, the amendments placed before the Secretary of State were practically confined to such concrete suggestions on points of detail as had been offered by local Governments in the light of practical experience, and accepted as desirable by the Government of India. These amendments were comparatively unimportant, and consequently need not be mentioned here. Proposals involving alterations in the principle of the regulations were excluded for the reason, stated in the Government of India despatch dated the 23rd January 1913, that since the Councils had so far stood the test of only one general election, it would be premature and impolitic to embark as yet upon any basic changes in their constitution. The opportunity was, however, taken to effect some changes in the distribution of seats in Madras with a view to the more equitable representation of landholders and local bodies: in the United Provinces, in consequence of certain administrative territorial changes, and in the Punjab in order to constitute a District Board electorate similar to those already provided for in other provinces, and to extend the franchise to a greater number of municipalities. It had been considered advisable, when the regulations were framed, to proceed on cautious lines in the Punjab in the matter of elective representation in view of the comparative backwardness of that province. But this differentiation had aroused considerable adverse criticism, and the Government of India welcomed the local Government's assurance that it was now possible to make an advance in the extension of the electoral principle. Some further changes in the regulations were made in 1915. These were concerned with minor matters such as the term of office of members and corrupt practices in voting. The Burma Council was enlarged by two members in the same year.

New Legislative
Councils for
Bengal, Bihar and
Orissa, and Assam.

The territorial redistribution consequent upon the transfer of capital to Delhi involved certain minor changes in the constitution of the Imperial Council as well as the formation of three separate provincial Councils for Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam, respectively, in place of the two Councils hitherto in existence. The strength of the Legislative Councils of the three new Provinces was ultimately determined as follows:—

Ex-officio members, Bengal 4, Bihar and Orissa 4, Assam 1. *Nominated members*, Bengal 22, Bihar and Orissa 20, Assam 14. *Elected members*, Bengal 28, Bihar and Orissa 21, Assam 11. *Total strength*, Bengal 54, Bihar and Orissa 45, Assam 26.

Formation of a
Legislative Council
for the Central
Provinces and
Berar.

At the time of the institution of the enlarged Legislative Councils, the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces had advocated the creation of an informally constituted advisory council in those provinces and Berar. Lord Minto's Government, while in no way disposed to underrate the force of the arguments used by the Chief Commissioner, expressed themselves unable to overlook the general objections attaching to the introduction in a single province of a novel form of deliberative body, the constitution and proceedings of which would not be regulated by any legal provision. In addition, the Government of India laid stress on the absence of any indication of the wishes of the people in the matter, and suggested the postponement of the question until such evidence was forthcoming. Meanwhile, they requested that their conclusions might be made generally known in such manner as the Chief Commissioner might think fit, and copies of the letter expressing these views were accordingly sent by the Chief Commissioner to the Press. In December 1910, the Chief Commissioner, in forwarding to the Government of India memorials submitted by certain public bodies in the Central Provinces on the subject,

renewed his recommendation of the measure, not on the ground that there was a genuine popular demand in its favour (for the memorials forwarded were not such as to warrant this inference), but on the same general considerations which had justified the grant of constitutional reforms in other provinces, namely, the political dissatisfaction existing among the educated class, and the desirability, as education advanced, of allaying it by granting opportunities of closer association with the Government in the administration of the country. The reasons for recommending an advisory as opposed to a legislative council were the following:—

- (a) The fact that a legislative council for the Central Provinces would only be possible under the Indian Councils Act either by raising the administration of the province to the status of a Lieutenant-Governorship or by amending the Act.
- (b) The inability of the province to supply a sufficiency of suitable members for a full fledged legislative council on the pattern of other provinces.
- (c) The difficulty in connection with Berar, which was felt to be in need of representation, but could not be represented on a Central Provinces legislative council, since Berar is the territory of the Nizam of Hyderabad, and its inhabitants are technically aliens in British territory

In considering the proposal the Government of India at once decided that as a legislative council would be required sooner or later for the Central Provinces, there would be no advantage in the intermediate stage of an advisory council. The first of the difficulties enumerated above could be met by Parliamentary legislation, the second by the constitution of a legislative council on a scale suited to the province, and the third might be elucidated by a ruling from the Secretary of State. The matter was eventually decided by a clause enabling legislative councils to be provided for Chief Commissionerships being inserted in the bill which became the Government of India Act, 1912. The question whether Beraris could be made eligible to sit upon the provincial council was answered by the Secretary of State in the affirmative. Many details, however, still required to be settled, and it was not until August 1914 that a legislative council, consisting of 24 members besides the Chief Commissioner, was inaugurated at Nagpur.

In September 1913 the Government of the United Provinces addressed the Government of India on the question of the creation of an executive council for those provinces. In describing at length the state of local public opinion on the subject Sir James Meston showed that the measure was keenly desired by the advanced political party, that it was opposed by two out of the three of the ruling chiefs under his political control—the third being a minor—and that it was then generally not acceptable to the influential land-owning classes as represented by the majority of the taluqdars of Oudh and Agra. Among the middle classes and the general mass of the people there was no evidence of any opinion on the subject at all. Sir James Meston's own view was that the change could not at the moment be justified by the first and most practical criterion, namely, whether the work of the province was so heavy or so complicated as to be beyond the ability of one man. On the other hand he admitted that the volume of work was steadily increasing, and that the creation of an executive council might become necessary in the near future. The dominant argument for a council was however, in his opinion, the enlistment of the services of an Indian gentleman in the actual work of Government, and this he did not consider it possible to resist indefinitely in view of the existing steady trend of administrative progress in that direction. In general, Sir James Meston concluded that the change was bound to come in time, and that the opposition of the more influential landlords would probably decline. On this assumption, he recommended that the Government of India should take the necessary steps for obtaining the approval of His Majesty's Government to the reform, before the agitation in its favour should become so strong and so widespread that to concede it then would have the appearance of weakness or yielding to pressure.

Proposed Executive
Council for the
United Provinces.

The majority of the Government of India accepted the reasoning of the local Government, and were in favour of bestowing an Executive Council on the United Provinces without further delay. Three Honourable Members were of opinion that the time was not ripe for the change and recorded this view in minutes of dissent which accompanied the despatch to the Secretary of State. Lord Crewe concurred in the policy of the Government of India as expressed by the majority, and a draft proclamation ordering the creation of an executive council for the United Provinces was laid before both Houses of Parliament early in 1915. It was however rejected on the 17th March by the House of Lords, which carried an address to His Majesty praying him to withhold consent from it during the continuance of the war.

Appointment of a
Royal Commission
on the Public
Services in India.

The Royal Commission on the Public Services in India was appointed in 1912. Its report was not completed prior to the war, and it was subsequently decided to withhold it until peace was restored. The circumstances which led to the appointment of the Commission were, briefly speaking, fourfold—

- (a) A resolution had been moved in the Imperial Council at Calcutta in March 1911 recommending the appointment of a mixed Commission to consider the possibility of the extended employment of Indians in the superior ranks of Government service. Although unable at the moment to accept the proposal to appoint a Commission, the Government of India undertook to make an inquiry from local Governments on the general question of the further employment of Indians, more particularly with a view to the expansion of the provincial services to the full extent outlined by the Public Services Commission of 1886.
- (b) Signs were not wanting of a more or less general dissatisfaction among the members of the Imperial services at their present position, prospects and pay.
- (c) Discussions had been carried on for some time between the Government of India and the Secretary of State regarding the age of selection of Indian Civil Service candidates and the nature and length of the training undergone by probationers in England. In both these directions need for improvement was felt.
- (d) Lastly, the position of Indian students in England, of whom there were considerable numbers studying for entrance into the Imperial services, was becoming a source of anxiety, and the question arose whether this could not be mitigated to some extent by recruitment for those services in India.

The terms of reference of the Commission were as follows :—

“To examine and report upon the following matters in connection with the Indian Civil Service and other Civil Services, Imperial and Provincial :—

- (1) The methods of recruitment and the systems of training and probation ;
- (2) The conditions of service, salary, leave and pension ;
- (3) Such limitations as still exist in the employment of non-Europeans and working of the existing system of the division of services into Imperial and Provincial ;

and generally to consider the requirements of the public service and to recommend such changes as may seem expedient ”.

The Commission toured twice in India, in the cold weathers of 1912-13 and 1913-14, and was still working in London at the outbreak of war. It was consequently inevitable that many reforms in connection with the various services, that would in other circumstances have been initiated, should be postponed until the result of the Commission's inquiries was published. In any case it was obvious that no general and constructive line of policy could be undertaken in the meantime. A number of necessary and useful measures were however carried out.

A most desirable and long postponed reform was carried into effect in 1913 when the Central Provinces and Berar Commissions were amalgamated and the pay and grading of the combined cadre were placed on the same footing as those of the Punjab.

Reorganization and amalgamation of the Central Provinces and Berar cadres.

In 1912 the block in promotion among members of the Indian Civil Service in several provinces had become serious, owing in a large measure to over recruitment in previous years. Memorials on the subject were received from a great number of officers through the local Governments of the United Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and, later, Bombay. The Government of India, after a most careful comparison of the actual salaries drawn by officers in the above-mentioned provinces with what might be considered their normal prospects, proposed a remedial time-scale of minimum salaries for officers of 8 to 16 years' service (inclusive) which received the sanction of the Secretary of State. In October 1914 however this scale was partly superseded by a remedial time-scale on similar lines which was brought into force all over India as compensation for the failure of normal officiating promotion owing to the general recall of all officers on leave at the outbreak of war. The new scale comprised minimum salaries from the 3rd to the 21st year of service inclusive, the rates from the 8th to the 16th year being the same as in the provinces for which the special scales already mentioned were in force.

Introduction of temporary remedial time scales in the Indian Civil Service.

Important changes were effected in the constitution of the executive branch of the Provincial Civil Service in Madras, the United Provinces and the Punjab. In each case reform was necessitated both by the insufficiency of the strength of the cadre to cope with the very large increase of administrative work, and also by the inadequacy of the pay and prospects to attract suitable candidates under modern conditions. The scheme for the United Provinces was by far the largest, involving an increase of 59 posts in the cadre, and the regrading of a large number of posts, at a combined total cost of Rs. 3,47,486 per annum.

Provincial Civil Service changes.

In 1913 a proposal was supported by the Government of India and sanctioned by the Secretary of State to add 40 temporary posts of sub-deputy collectors to the Bengal cadre in order to provide an agency for the better supervision of the village police, the development of the *panchayat* system and the formation of a link (other than the police) between the district administration and the people. This measure represents an initial step towards establishing in the districts of the Bengal Presidency some subordinate executive agency of Government corresponding to that found in the tahsildars of Northern India, which enables a district officer to keep closely and readily in touch with the outlying portions of his charge. The absence of any such agency in Bengal had already been commented upon by the Royal Commission upon Decentralization. The necessity for employing the police on miscellaneous duties outside the district headquarters was an admitted flaw in the Bengal system, although attempts had been made to minimise the evil by fostering the growth of village *panchayats* and by giving them more control over the chowkidars. But without any supervising agency the experiment had not proved a success. The object of the employment of the 40 extra sub-deputy collectors was to provide this supervision, and it is hoped that ultimately a regular system of resident circle officers may be established in the Bengal districts.

Tentative introduction of the circle system in Bengal.

JUDICIAL.

In 1911 the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 was amended in Parliament so as to raise the maximum number of Judges in a High Court from 15 to 20 (inclusive of the Chief Justice), and to permit of the Governor-General in Council temporarily increasing the strength of any High Court within that maximum by the appointment of temporary additional judges for periods not exceeding two years. This legislation was initiated in view of the congested state of work in the Calcutta High Court, where the arrears of civil appeals alone had risen from 5,398 to 8,389, in less than two years. The court was already at its statutory maximum under the existing law, and the Government

Amendment of the Indian High Courts Act, 1861.

of Bengal urged that it was absolutely necessary to raise its numerical strength. The power to appoint temporary Additional Judges was suggested as a means of obviating the cumbrous procedure, hitherto employed when temporary judges were required, of making a new permanent appointment, and, when it was no longer needed, of leaving unfilled the next ensuing permanent vacancy. The proposals of the Government of India commended themselves to the Secretary of State, and the existing Act was amended accordingly in August 1911. At the same time another important amendment was inserted, taking power to His Majesty to establish High Courts in any province in India.

High Court for
Bihar and Orissa.

Necessary as the strengthening of the Calcutta High Court was, it was not destined to be more than a temporary measure. Within a few months, by April 1912, the province of Bihar and Orissa had been constituted, and the Government of India were strongly inclined to the view that the new province should have a High Court of its own. In this opinion they were subsequently supported by the new local Government, and by the majority of public opinion in Bihar and Orissa. The step was no more than the corollary to the constitution of the province itself, and it was hardly to be contemplated in the case of a province of the first rank that its litigants should be compelled to resort, and its local judicial authorities should be subordinate, to a tribunal sitting outside its limits. Accordingly, after a full consultation with the Calcutta High Court as well as the local Government of Bihar and Orissa, the Government of India advocated the acceptance of the principle that a High Court should be established at Patna for the new province. The only other point upon which a decision was immediately sought was the position of Orissa, for which it was felt that special arrangements were required. This part of the new province, though reasonably near to Calcutta, is at a great distance from Patna, and rendered still more inaccessible from it by the circuitous railway connection between the two places. On the other hand, the volume of litigation from the locality was not thought to be sufficient for a separate court or bench situated permanently in Orissa. The Government of India therefore recommended, with the concurrence of the Calcutta High Court, that a circuit bench of Judges from the Patna Court should sit at regular intervals at Cuttack. This, together with the main proposal, was accepted by the Secretary of State. The construction of the High Court buildings and the proposals for the necessary establishment, were taken in hand at once by the local Government, while the constitution of the court was fixed at one Chief Justice and 6 Puisne Judges. The new court finally came into existence on the 1916.

Proposed High
Court for the
Punjab.

In May 1913, Sir Louis Dane, then at the end of his term of office as Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, resuscitated the question of raising the status of the Punjab Chief Court to that of a High Court. The proposal had last been put forward during Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty, when it had been rejected by the Secretary of State, in concurrence with the Government of India, on the ground, principally, that the existence of frontier districts in the Punjab laid upon the Chief Court the necessity of issuing rules and instructions for the guidance of subordinate courts in a way that would be out of the question in the case of a High Court. The Punjab Government pointed out that the frontier difficulty had now ceased to exist, that the long standing anomaly of having a court of inferior status in a province of the importance of the Punjab was becoming more pronounced year by year, and that there was a genuine and ever-increasing demand for the enhanced status of the court throughout the educated community of the province. Sir Louis Dane, however, attached certain conditions to his proposal relating to the constitution of the court which, upon examination, the Government of India found unacceptable. Sir M. O'Dwyer, Sir L. Dane's successor, endorsed all the considerations in favour of a High Court put forward under Sir Louis Dane, but expressed the view that the demand should be met by a normally constituted High Court. Lord Hardinge's Government accordingly addressed the Secretary of State in January 1915, strongly recommending the creation of a High Court for the Punjab. Lord Crewe was, however, unable to accept the proposal, though he left it to the Government of India to reopen the question at the end of the war.

GENERAL AND SOCIAL LEGISLATION.

Note.—The various completed Acts of the Legislature during the period under review are mentioned elsewhere, but in addition various other important measures were advanced to different stages. When war broke out it was, however, decided to postpone all legislation of a controversial character, and the expectation that some at least of the Bills outlined below might have passed into law could consequently not be realised.

Various defects in the working of the Criminal Procedure Code had come to light since the last revision of the Code in 1898, and Lord Minto's Government had decided in 1910 that a general revision was called for. After consultation with local Governments a draft bill involving the amendment of about 130 Sections of the Code was eventually forwarded with a despatch to the Secretary of State by the Government of India in July 1913. The Secretary of State, with certain reservations, gave sanction in March 1914 to the introduction of the bill. It was accordingly introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council in the same month.

The Criminal
Procedure Code
Amendment Bill.

In 1909 Lord Minto's Government had had under consideration the desirability of legislating to prevent the prejudice of justice by the bringing of courts into contempt or by the publication in connection with cases still *sub-judice* of comments calculated to impede their fair trial. The views of local Governments were accordingly invited, and on the whole they were in favour of legislation, but by the time that the replies came to be considered in 1911 the Press Act of 1910 had been passed into law, and had furnished Government with considerably enhanced powers in dealing with the Press. The Government of India, therefore, thought it unnecessary as well as inopportune to proceed with an additional measure of the same nature for the moment, but they circulated a draft bill for dealing with the evils in question with the idea of being prepared beforehand to legislate, should the necessity again arise. The essential features of the bill met with practically unanimous acceptance, and in view of subsequent developments while the matter was under discussion the Government of India decided to proceed with legislation forthwith. The Secretary of State's permission having been obtained in January 1914, the bill was actually introduced in that session.

Contempts Bill.

Another measure which occupied attention was the proposed consolidation and amendment of the law relating to legal practitioners. The proposal had first been mooted by the United Provinces Government in 1910; and after discussion with local Governments proposals were submitted to the Secretary of State in May 1915 and approved by him.

Proposed Bill for
the Consolidation
and Amendment of
the law relating to
Legal Practitioners

In April 1911 the Secretary of State made inquiries from the Government of India regarding the various methods by which female children in India are made to enter upon a career of prostitution either by dedication as temple dancing girls, or by symbolical marriage or by adoption by women of loose morals. The matter had last been discussed in 1903-1905, when the Government of India formed the opinion that the evil was not of such magnitude as to demand fresh legislation, and that with a more systematic surveillance by the police of persons engaged in immoral callings the existing law would be found to suffice. The question thus reopened by the Secretary of State was referred to local Governments, with the result that the Governments of the three provinces of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, which are those mainly concerned, were found to agree that the existing law required strengthening if the abuses mentioned above were to be stopped. Meanwhile in September 1912 Mr. Dadabhoi, a member of the Imperial Legislative Council, had raised the whole subject of the amendment of the law relating to sexual offences in a bill which he had introduced in the Council. This bill also was forwarded to local Governments for criticism. As a consequence of the two references Lord Hardinge's Government proposed to initiate legislation on the subject themselves. This course having been approved by the Secretary of State, a bill was introduced in September 1913, and after being much debated in Select Committee, was circulated for the further opinion of local Governments in April 1914.

Protection of minor
girls from
prostitution.

Suppression of
usury.

In 1913-14 the Government of India addressed themselves to the problem of mitigating the abuse of the civil courts as an agency for the realisation of exorbitant rates of usury by money-lenders. The law on the subject had last undergone modification by the Indian Contract Act Amendment Act of 1899, which defined the circumstances in which a contract may be said to be induced by undue influence, and conferred power to set aside a contract so obtained. Experience had since shown that this safeguard was not sufficient to prevent the evil, which undoubtedly still prevailed all over India. The Government of India considered that the whole subject was ripe for discussion once more, and they accordingly in July 1914 addressed local Governments, whose replies were received in the course of 1915.

Religious and
Charitable
Endowments.

The Religious Endowments Act of 1863 (Act XX of 1863) was the outcome of the policy of the British Government, inherited from the Court of Directors, that Government should divest itself of all superintendence and control of religious and charitable endowments in India, transferring its functions in respect of them to managers or managing committees, and merely making provision for intervention by the civil courts on application made by anyone personally interested in any particular charity. This enactment and the declared policy of the Government of India mentioned above were still in force unmodified at the outset of Lord Hardinge's Viceroyalty. But from within six years of the passing of the Act of 1863 down to 1908 the efficacy of the Act to prevent the squandering or misappropriation of religious funds was constantly challenged, especially in the Madras Presidency, and in 1911 a private bill on the subject was introduced in the Legislative Council of Bombay by Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola. About the same time, another draft bill was promoted by two private members in the Madras Legislative Council. After correspondence with both Governments the Government of India decided that it was time to reconsider the general attitude of Government towards the question. The Secretary of State was accordingly addressed in a despatch dated the 30th January 1913, and after discussion with him and at a conference of officials and non-officials held at Delhi on March 16, 1914, the Government of India finally formulated their proposals in a despatch dated the 23rd July 1914. The Secretary of State accepted their conclusions in a despatch dated the 13th November 1914, and a draft bill for introduction in the Imperial Legislative Council was prepared and submitted in October 1915.

Agra Estates and
Settled Estates Bill.

The Government of India also supported a draft bill analogous to the enactments in force in Oudh and Madras for the protection of large estates in the province of Agra. The proposal was very strongly recommended by the United Provinces Government under Sir John Hewett, as well as his successor Sir James Meston, on political grounds and in response to local feeling which (it was stated) had grown increasingly in favour of such a measure ever since the passing of the Oudh Settled Estates Act of 1900. A draft bill was forwarded to the Secretary of State in October 1915.

POLICE.

Civil police reforms

The reforms initiated by the Police Commission had been completed by Lord Minto's Government except in Bombay, the proposals regarding which were under consideration till 1913. The reorganizations finally sanctioned by the Secretary of State involved considerable extra expenditure in the case of the subordinate district police, and of the Bombay City subordinate police.

The redistribution of the civil police establishments entailed by the constitution of the three new provinces in 1912 was approved by the Secretary of State in 1913. Arrangements were also sanctioned for the Delhi province.

The Government of India had further to face demands from most of the provinces for the enhancement of the rates of pay of their subordinate police, coupled in some cases with proposals for strengthening these establishments. While the latter may be attributed to the individual conditions and varying rates of development in different provinces, the former was due to causes which were common to all provinces and which were connected with a general rise in the expense of living and the price of labour and with the increasing arduousness and complexity of the work required from

the police. Sanction was obtained to reforms of the former class in Bengal, the Central Provinces, Assam and North-West Frontier Province, and similar proposals were under consideration affecting Madras, Burma and Bihar and Orissa, while a partial measure of relief was sanctioned for the United Provinces pending the materialisation of further extensive proposals on the same lines.

In September 1915, the Secretary of State approved an increase in the rates of pay of head constables and constables in the Madras City Police and in September 1915, a scheme for appointing an additional Deputy Commissioner and extra subordinate police, so as to provide for adequately policing the docks in Bombay city, received his sanction. Presidency Police (including the Rangoon Town Police).

In Burma the outstanding features of the military police administration were the creation of the new Putao battalion in consequence of the extension of the administered area, and the abolition of two of the less important battalions in Upper Burma. The saving effected by the latter measure was entirely absorbed by the introduction of certain improvements in the conditions of service of the military police generally. As regards the former the particular question merged into a general inquiry into the strength of the whole force and the possibility of effecting some reduction in the other battalions which was still in progress. Military Police.

The territorial redistribution of 1912 necessitated a reconsideration of the needs of the three new provinces in the matter of military police, and the developments on the north-eastern frontier of Assam involved the constitution of the new Darrang battalion, which was created in part out of the old Silchar and Garo Hills detachments. The measures taken under the former head were directed as far as possible to preserving existing arrangements and the only material change consisted in the constitution of a military police battalion in the Bengal Presidency. The changes in the Assam military police on account of the formation of a new battalion were coupled with a complete reorganisation of the whole force into four battalions of uniform size and a strengthening of the superior command, together with certain minor modifications. After prolonged discussions the scheme was finally submitted to the Secretary of State and received his sanction in June 1915.

Considerable progress was made in the application of the Criminal Tribes Act to wandering and other tribes addicted to crime, and the Government of India gave ready support to proposals for supplementing the restrictive provisions of the Act by endeavours to reform the tribes and induce them to adopt honest ways of living. In Madras and Bombay the Secretary of State at the instance of the Government of India sanctioned the disbursement of considerable grants to the Salvation Army and other agencies undertaking criminal reclamation work. In Bombay a special officer had been on deputation with the same object from 1909, and the Secretary of State's sanction was obtained to the continuance of his work up to 1918. In the United Provinces the Secretary of State, at the instance of the Government of India, sanctioned the extension of the period of special duty of a police officer engaged in similar work. The Punjab Government submitted an ambitious proposal including the establishment of special industrial and agricultural homes and colonies for these tribes and the appointment of a special officer to supervise their control and reclamation, and although the Government of India, partly on financial grounds, were unable to recommend the immediate introduction of the proposals, they approved the deputation of an officer on special duty to commence the work and prepare a detailed scheme. Criminal Tribes.

The measures to be taken to prevent malpractices on the part of the subordinate police engaged the constant attention of the Government of India, and the lines on which they found it possible to take action are briefly described as follows. In June 1911 they issued specific instructions as to the steps to be taken in the various provinces to bring home to the police and to the public the fact that the merits of investigating officers are not judged solely by the statistical results of the cases sent up by them for trial. About the same time they requested local Governments to promulgate orders to secure that wide publicity should be given to all punishments inflicted on police officers for ill-treating prisoners or witnesses in connection with the investigation of Precautions against police misconduct.

cases. In August 1911, they moved local Governments to issue directions that directly an accused person is arrested the investigating officer should ask him whether he has any complaints to make of ill-treatment by the police, and, if any such allegation is made, to examine the prisoner's body and if necessary to forward him with a report of the facts to the nearest magistrate having jurisdiction. In December 1913, definite instructions were issued, with the approval of Secretary of State, that in all cases of serious misconduct, where a sessions court or a court of superior status has recorded its opinion that a specific inquiry is necessary, that inquiry should take place automatically and should be publicly conducted by a commission of two officers, of whom one should have judicial experience and neither should belong to the police department, unless the case is ready to be placed at once before a criminal court in the ordinary way. In June 1911, the Government of India, with a view to preventing the improper treatment by the police of prisoners in their custody, instituted inquiries as to the safeguards in the way of inspection by superior officers, etc., exercised in the case of lock-ups where the investigating police are in direct charge or where the guard is furnished by the police. The Government of India approved generally the conclusions arrived at and the action proposed to be taken by local Governments. Finally, the subject of the recording of confessions of accused persons before their trial and the use of such confessions as evidence against them was exhaustively discussed with the Secretary of State and local Governments, with the result that it was finally decided, with the Secretary of State's approval, to make no change in the direction of excluding from the evidence admissible against an accused person a confession made by him to an experienced magistrate, but to provide that the record of such confessions should be made by fully competent authority, in a complete form and in circumstances which as far as possible precluded the suggestion that improper inducements were offered to the prisoner with a view to persuading him to make a statement.

PENAL.

Jail Administration.

The record of Jail Administration during the period covered by this summary was uneventful, and no considerable modifications were introduced in the existing system. This does not imply that the policy adopted was one of stagnation. On the contrary, progress in at least two important directions was achieved by several of the local Governments. In the first place, the institution of jails on the Borstal system for young convicts in the Punjab, Bengal and elsewhere, marked a very desirable advance in the vital matter of the reformation of criminals, as did also the establishment by the Salvation Army, with the assistance of the Local Government in each case, of reformatory industrial and agricultural settlements for criminal tribes in Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces and the Punjab. Further, experimental reforms in the system of dieting of prisoners, which had been the subject of a lengthy investigation and report by Major McCay, I. M. S., were introduced on the basis of recommendations in that report in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the United Provinces. The Madras Government had independently effected changes of the same nature in the dieting of prisoners in that Presidency.

The Home Member's visit to the Andaman Islands, and Resolution in the Imperial Council to appoint a Jail Committee.

It was, however, only the outbreak of war that postponed an exhaustive investigation into the jail question in India. In November 1913, the Hon'ble Member in the Home Department (Sir R. Craddock) visited the Andaman Islands on a tour of inspection, and embodied the result of his inquiries in a minute in which he advocated not only a scheme for the reorganization of the convict settlement, but also certain radical changes in the entire penal system of India. In February 1914, a resolution urging the appointment of a Commission "to investigate the whole subject of jail administration and to suggest improvements in the light of the experiences of the West" was moved in the Imperial Council by an unofficial member, Mr. Rama Rayaningar, and accepted by Government. The Secretary of State readily agreed to the proposal, and the constitution of the Committee was under consideration by the Government of India at the outbreak of war. The matter is now indefinitely postponed, but the Government of India

proceeded to deal with a number of detailed reforms which had been suggested as temporary improvements in the existing Andamans system.

By the decision to appoint a Deputy Superintendent in resident charge of the Nicobars an attempt was made at systematic administration of these islands. Since their annexation in 1869 the islanders had been left largely to themselves, the only Government officials being the two agents at Car Nicobar and Camorta, who are armed with no executive powers. The recent rise in the commercial value of cocoanuts, in which the islands are rich, has led to the exploitation of the Nicobars by unscrupulous traders. In addition to setting the future administration of the islands upon a sounder basis the Government of India introduced two amending regulations with the object of safeguarding the inhabitants against the depredations of the traders. Firstly, the residential and trading license rules were revised so as to bring the traders under stricter control and secondly, a simple civil procedure was provided for settling disputes between traders and the natives.

Administration of
the Nicobars.

MEDICAL.

One of the last acts of Lord Minto's Government was to address a despatch to the Secretary of State on the important questions of the steps to be taken to promote the growth of an independent medical profession in India, and the proposed limitation or reduction of the civil cadre of the Indian Medical Service. They asked for recognition of the principle that for administrative and other reasons the question of the strength of the civil cadre of the Indian Medical Service should be treated entirely apart from any steps that might be taken to promote the growth of the unofficial medical profession. They indicated several independent means by which Government could further the latter object, and asked for a withdrawal of Lord Morley's decision that no further increase in the civil cadre of the Indian Medical Service should be allowed. Lord Crewe, in replying to the despatch on the 22nd November 1912, expressed himself in general agreement with these conclusions, subject to any reconsideration which the report of the Public Services Commission might necessitate. His Lordship consented to withdraw the orders restricting the future growth of the civil cadre of the Indian Medical Service, and while holding that the service should be confined to the military needs of the country, he recognised at the same time that a large proportion of civil posts were such as could not in time of stress be safely entrusted to others than members of a trained and disciplined service. All proposals, therefore, for future addition to the civil cadre of the Indian Medical Service would be considered on their merits, but would be subjected to the closest scrutiny. A further communication from the Government of India was sent on the 5th March 1914, and in July 1914 the correspondence was published with the Secretary of State's approval.

Indian Medical
Service.

The subject of the establishment in Calcutta of non-official medical schools improperly equipped and inadequately staffed, which were turning out numerous students with high-sounding degrees designed to be imitations of those granted by the University, had been under discussion since 1908 when the local Government recommended that legislation should be undertaken. Somewhat later a draft bill for the registration of medical practitioners was submitted by the Government of Bombay in October 1909 and passed in May 1912, subsequent to which under the control of the Medical Council provided by their Act, a College of Physicians and Surgeons was created to appoint examiners and grant diplomas to medical practitioners who had not the means to obtain a University degree. The policy of registration commended itself to the Government of India, who were further of opinion that the time had come to legislate against bogus degrees. They addressed local Governments accordingly in a letter dated the 23rd May 1913, asking for their views, and suggesting the introduction of a Registration Act and the creation of a Medical Council in each province. By the time that the replies had been received Bengal and Madras also had passed Registration Acts, and eventually all provinces proceeded to initiate similar legislation. An Imperial bill for the penalization of bogus degrees was introduced with the approval of the Secretary of State on the 15th September 1915.

Medical
Registration, and
the penalization of
bogus medical
degrees.

Organization of
Women's Indian
Medical Service.
Hospital and
Training School
for women at
Delhi.

The Countess of Dufferin Fund was established in 1885 with the object of co-ordinating the efforts of the then existing charitable institutions for the supply of medical aid to women, and of organizing new institutions of the same nature both in British India and in Native States. In 1911 and in 1912 deputations of English ladies waited upon the Secretary of State and submitted schemes for replacing the existing arrangement, the administration of which they attacked, by a Women's Indian Medical Service. Before the views put forward by the second deputation were communicated the Government of India in a despatch, dated the 12th September 1912, expressed the opinion that no scheme for the creation of a Women's Indian Medical Service, analogous to the Indian Medical Service, was either practicable or necessary, and that it would be a mistake to abandon the existing agency of the Dufferin Fund, which was shown to be doing excellent work. At the same time they asked for sanction to subsidise the Dufferin Fund (or as it is also called the National Association for supplying female medical aid to the Women of India) to the extent of Rs. 1½ lakhs per annum. On receipt of the proceedings of the second deputation, the whole subject was again considered. The main points suggested by the Secretary of State were:—

- (a) That a properly equipped and graded medical service should be created in India.
- (b) That definite rules should be laid down governing such a service in respect of leave and pension.
- (c) That an efficient system of supervision of women doctors by women should be organised.
- (d) That provision should be made in this country for the training in medicine of women by women.
- (e) That an adequate representation of medical women by medical women should be accorded on the different Councils, Boards and all other governing bodies under whom women work.
- (f) That a system of registration of medical practitioners should be introduced.

The Central Committee of the Dufferin Fund accordingly evolved a scheme for the constitution of an organized Women's Medical Service working under the National Association. This scheme met the first three suggestions referred to above. The fourth had been anticipated by the initiation at the instance and through the efforts of Her Excellency the late Lady Hardinge of the important Medical College and Hospital for Women and Training School for nurses at Delhi. Steps were taken to give effect to the fifth suggestion by making arrangements for the adequate representation of medical women by medical women on the Central and Provincial Councils of the National Association. As regards registration legislation was already in process to secure this object. The Government of India replied as above to the Secretary of State in a despatch dated the 21st March 1913, and renewed their request for sanction to the subsidy. This the Secretary of State accorded in a despatch dated the 6th June 1913. Meanwhile, great progress had been made with the scheme for the Medical College and Hospital and School for Women at Delhi, no less than 15 lakhs of rupees having been promised by Ruling Chiefs and others towards the proposal on the condition that Government would subsidize the institution by an annual grant equal to the estimated cost of maintenance less any income from endowments. It was anticipated that a grant of one lakh of rupees per annum would be necessary, and in September 1913, the sanction of the Secretary of State was obtained to this provision.

Provincial Medical
Institutions.

The foundation of two important provincial medical institutions calls for mention.

School of Tropical
Medicine at
Calcutta.

The establishment of a School of Tropical Medicine for India had been advocated since the beginning of 1910, as a means of promoting scientific research in tropical diseases in this country, and of ending the existing anomaly that medical officers and private practitioners in India should have to go to such places as Liverpool and Greenwich for the study of tropical disease. In July 1910 the Government of India had addressed the Government of Bengal

proposing the establishment of such a school at Calcutta, and suggested that a beginning should be made on a small and unpretentious scale by the institution of a post-graduate course in tropical medicine at the Medical College in that city. The Government of Bengal readily accepted the proposal, but intimated that an expansion of the Medical College buildings to accommodate tropical laboratories was already necessary, and they proposed that the new buildings required for a School of Tropical Medicine should be joined with that scheme. Eventually, the Secretary of State's sanction was communicated in a despatch dated the 19th September 1912, to the following proposals: (a) the construction of a school of tropical medicine and of biological laboratories, and (b) the assignment of additional teaching duties in connection with the school to the Principal of the College, and to the Professors of Pathology and Biology with the grant to them of allowances for the work. But the scheme rapidly outgrew these proposals. In June 1914 the Government of Bengal represented that owing to the great recent expansion of the Medical College and to the revision of the University Regulations involving a more elaborate course for the M. B. examination, the Professors of the college could no longer be expected to find time for teaching in the new Tropical School. Moreover, the original proposal for a post-graduate course in tropical medicine had already developed into a scheme for a fully equipped school with facilities for every kind of research and instruction in tropical diseases. The laying of the foundation stone of the school in February 1914 had aroused enthusiasm and anticipations not merely in India but in many other countries concerned or interested in tropical diseases. The Government of Bengal, therefore, concluded that it was imperative to provide the new school with a whole-time staff. The Government of India accepted the view, and gave their sanction, subject to the Secretary of State's approval, to a staff consisting of a Director and four Professors. Meanwhile the estimated cost of construction of the school received the Secretary of State's sanction in September 1914. The school has not yet been opened.

The scheme for the construction of a Northern India Lunatic Asylum for Europeans at Ranchi had been under consideration since 1904, but for various reasons had made little progress. Eventually, however, the Government of Bihar and Orissa submitted estimates to which administrative sanction was given, the cost being taken as an Imperial charge. The work is now in progress.

Asylum for
European Lunatics
at Ranchi.

POLITICAL.

In November 1910 the situation was one of much political unrest. Violent anti-Government agitation, the formation of revolutionary associations, riots and outrages against Government servants, so-called "political" dacoities, a persistent press campaign of sedition, and attempts to corrupt the minds of schoolboys and students had been constant features in the previous administration. The hands of authority had been strengthened by the assumption of special powers, but although these had rendered possible a stricter control over some aspects of the seditious movement, they had by no means put an end to it.

Politically, Lord Hardinge's period of office in connection with the Home Department may be conveniently viewed in four terms; namely, that which preceded the Royal Visit and the Delhi Durbar; that which succeeded those notable events up to the time of the attempt upon the Viceroy's life; the period subsequent thereto but prior to the war, and the final twenty months during which the war has overshadowed every other event in importance, and influenced every side of Indian life. Each of these terms has had a certain general character of its own, differentiating it from the rest.

The first term (23rd November 1910—12th December 1911) saw the end of various important criminal and civil proceedings initiated in the time of Lord Minto, and a continuation of seditious outrages, more particularly in Bengal. Thus in December 1910 the Nasik (Bombay) conspiracy case—the sequel to the murder of the Collector, Mr. Jackson—terminated in the conviction of 27 persons; the Pandharpur (Bombay) bomb case closed with the punishment of 9 accused; in the Khulna-Jessore (Bengal) gang case,

The seditious
campaign,
November 1910—
December 1911.

on the tender of a plea of guilty the Crown did not press the case, and an order only was passed binding over the accused to come up for sentence thereafter when required; the Howrah (Bengal) gang case concluded with the acquittal or discharge of 38 out of 46 men committed for trial; the prosecution of certain persons accused of tampering with the loyalty of the 10th Jats regiment in Calcutta broke down; in the Dacca conspiracy case the Sessions Judge sentenced 36 out of 44 accused, and the Midnapore civil suit, in which the District Magistrate and two police officers were sued in respect of action taken by them in connection with an alleged seditious conspiracy, resulted in a decree for damages against all defendants. (This decree was reversed on appeal in August 1912, thus clearing the reputations of the Government servants concerned and bringing to a close a most protracted and regrettable litigation) The conclusion of these lengthy prosecutions tended to clear the political atmosphere and to pave the way for the restoration of improved conditions, while the action of the Crown in the Khulna-Jessore gang case was welcomed as an earnest offer on the part of Government to condone the past on a promise of future amendment. Quiet, however, had not yet come to Bengal. During 1911 various political dacoities (the term is conveniently used as implying dacoities committed by men not ordinarily of the professional criminal classes, as a part of the seditious campaign) took place in Eastern Bengal and Assam, and the seditious party murdered in revenge three police officers in Calcutta, Mymensingh and Barisal respectively, and a witness in the Dacca conspiracy case. A bomb, which fortunately failed to explode, was thrown in Calcutta into the motor car of an officer of the Public Works Department, who was mistaken for a prominent police official, and Mr. Ashe, the Collector of Tinnevely (Madras), was shot dead at a local railway station. On the other hand the tone of the press, thanks to the control permissible under the Press Act of 1910, was more restrained and prosecutions were few.

Of this period it may be said that in India as a whole the conciliatory measures associated with the scheme of Council Reform, coupled with the preventive action of the preceding years, were beginning to bear fruit. Outrages still disgraced the record of Bengal, but elsewhere (apart from the Tinnevely murder) there were signs of better things. The celebration of Their Majesties' Coronation in London and the anticipation of the Royal Visit to India were already making themselves felt in a genuine desire of the vast majority of the people to demonstrate their devotion to the Crown, and latterly the activities of the seditious section were discouraged by the manifestations of loyalty which were visible on all sides, and which were a truer index to the general feelings of the country than the criminal acts of a minority of malcontents. The amendment and permanent enactment of the Seditious Meetings Act were evidence, however, that the Government of India were determined to prevent the recurrence of an earlier state of affairs, while the adoption of improved administrative methods formed the subject of anxious personal conference with officers of Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam.

The Delhi Durbar
and its after effects.

The Delhi Durbar was held on the 12th December 1911, and was followed by the different incidents of the Royal Visit which are elsewhere described. The presence of Their Majesties among Their Indian people and Their gracious utterances on different occasions had an admirable effect upon the political atmosphere, and inaugurated the second period of Lord Hardinge's Viceroyalty (12th December 1911—23rd December 1912) under the happiest auspices. The territorial redistribution in Bengal removed the ground of agitation which had been afforded by the original Partition, rendering it possible for Their Majesties to visit Calcutta without risk to Their personal safety, and, indeed, it seemed at last that the bitter incidents of recent years were to give place to the peaceful development of the country characteristic of British administration. Throughout the greater part of the year this expectation was realised. Dacoities still continued in Bengal, but were less numerous than in other years. The Tinnevely conspiracy case, resulting from the murder of Mr. Ashe, ended in the conviction of 9 out of 14 accused, and there was a satisfactory absence of other sensational prosecutions. In July some excitement was caused in Assam by an attack on the police engaged in executing a search

warrant in an institution known as the Arunachal Asram, the founder of which had been active in Assam since 1908, and the doings of whose disciples had previously attracted the attention of the authorities. Another exhibition of lawlessness, which was not without political significance, was the murder of the Mohunt of Sitakund at Chittagong, who was shot dead with an automatic pistol by a respectable Hindu youth.

However, such isolated incidents were not numerous, but a more important political development, which attracted attention at this time, bore reference to the state of feeling among Muhammadans. Events in Morocco and the outbreak of war between Turkey and Italy in 1911 were naturally disturbing to those interested in the future of the Moslem world, and resulted in some strain and heat among Indian Muhammadans who, for instance, hoped for more active intervention on the side of Turkey by the British Government. Meetings of sympathy with Turkey were held, and funds were subscribed to Red Crescent Funds and kindred objects. The modification of the Partition of Bengal was not viewed favourably by certain sections among Muhammadans, and events in Persia in 1911-12 tended to increase the tension, though a speech delivered by Lord Hardinge in Council in March 1912 had a soothing effect. The matter continued to be carefully watched, and in July 1912 the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces (Sir John Hewett) submitted a careful review of the local situation which, in his opinion, was full of anxiety. Reports were called for from other local Governments which corroborated the existence of considerable unrest, particularly in the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province, in which (along with the United Provinces) the most important Muhammadan centres lay. This was fostered by a sudden boom in Muhammadan journalism and the starting of a large number of new papers which pandered to sensationalism. The most conspicuous example was the *Zamindar* of Lahore, from which it was found necessary to demand security. The prevailing discontent had not as yet assumed a definite anti-Government tinge, but the impression was growing, and was being carefully fostered in some quarters, that the interests of Christianity and Islam were in serious conflict. The general conclusion arrived at by Government was that the position was undoubtedly delicate and called for the utmost vigilance in detecting fresh developments, but they were satisfied that so far it was well in hand. The opening of the Balkan war in October 1912, which occurred subsequent to the receipt of most of the provincial reports, introduced another grave factor and helped to perpetuate a state of affairs which the Government of India viewed with considerable uneasiness.

Towards the close of the year, however, the doings of the seditious party in Bengal again came into prominence. In September a constable was shot dead in Dacca, a serious political dacoity occurred in the same district in November, a bomb was thrown into the house of an informer at Midnapore, and matters culminated on the 23rd December when a bomb was hurled at Lord and Lady Hardinge, as they were proceeding on an elephant along the Chandni Chowk at Delhi in the State procession with which the inauguration of the new Capital was being celebrated. The explosion seriously injured the Viceroy and killed a *chobdar* who was seated immediately behind him. Another servant was also hurt, while one person was killed and others injured in the crowd.

This nefarious outrage brought to a gloomy end a year which, apart from dissatisfaction among Muhammadans (due primarily to causes for which the Indian Government were not responsible) had been one of hopefulness.

The ensuing nineteen months (23rd December 1912—4th August 1914) immediately preceding the war were troubled and anxious. The seditious sections in Bengal were active and daring, while determined efforts were made to link up their methods throughout Northern India; a serious conspiracy was discovered in Delhi and the Punjab, with ramifications in the Native States of Rajputana; the turmoil in the Muhammadan world continued; the open revolutionary movement initiated on the Pacific Coast of America, which was to play so prominent a part after hostilities had commenced, first made its appearance, while the difficulties connected with Indian emigration to Canada favoured its propaganda, sent a wave of unrest over the Punjab and led to most

The Muhammadan situation.

Seditious outrages and the attempt on His Excellency's life.

unfortunate results. Lord Hardinge mercifully recovered from his wounds, but was called upon to face a time of severe stress, which inevitably grew in intensity after war had been declared.

Continuance of
seditious activities,
December 1912—
August 1914.

Early in the year 1913 it was deemed desirable to effect an amendment of the Criminal Procedure Code with a view of strengthening the law on the subject of conspiracy, and subsequent events fully justified that step. During this year no less than eleven major outrages occurred in which inspectors of police, constables and informers were murdered in the most cold-blooded manner by bombs and revolvers, and an unsuccessful attempt was made on the life of Mr. Gordon, Sub-Divisional Officer of Maulvi Bazaar in Assam.

Important seizures of arms and explosives included the discovery of a bomb in the Burdwan district in April 1913, of pistols at Sibpur (Bengal) in September, and of explosives in Sylhet (Assam) in November, while in a raid on certain houses in Calcutta in May 1914 much seditious literature and a book on the manufacture of bombs were found. A new departure during this time was the despatch of letters containing explosive substances to various persons, mostly in Bengal, who had attracted the attention of the seditionists; among the recipients were Government officers, prominent Indians and editors of newspapers; fortunately the harm done was slight, and latterly this method of assault has been discarded, probably as too uncertain in its results. Dacoities in Bengal were a constant feature of this period, but important convictions were secured in January 1914 against twelve persons in the Barisal conspiracy case.

The situation in
Bengal and the
District
Administration
Committee.

It will be observed that the majority of the occurrences chronicled above concerned Bengal, and in February 1913 the Government of India called for the views of the local Government on the whole situation. These were received in March, and the conclusion was accepted that there existed, at all events in the eastern parts of the Presidency, a wide and carefully organised conspiracy, the ulterior object of which was the violent destruction of British rule. The methods adopted were dacoity for the double purpose of procuring money and arms, and of intimidating the people; the assassination of informers and obnoxious officials; the sedulous corruption of schoolboys, students and teachers; and the seduction of troops. In view of these facts the Government of India addressed the Governor in Council in May 1913, and in so doing dwelt upon the various methods by which the administration could be strengthened; these included the improvement and better armament of the police; the completion of the scheme of river police, which had long been pending; the reinforcement of the Criminal Investigation Department; the enrolment of a stronger village watch; the better control of schools; and the exercise of closer supervision over the press and the administration of the Arms Act. But the Government of India laid greatest stress on the need of thorough inquiry into the conditions which had produced the existing state of affairs, in which men of respectable parentage were openly taking to crime, and into the adequacy of the administrative machinery to deal with the problems with which they were faced. All these matters formed the subject of further correspondence, and in October 1913, the Bengal Government appointed a committee of four members, under the presidency of the Hon'ble Mr. E. V. Levinge, Member of the Executive Council of Bihar and Orissa, which included Civilian representatives from the United and Central Provinces respectively. The terms of reference were as follows:—

“To examine the conditions prevailing in the districts of Bengal; to compare them with those existing in other Provinces (more particularly in those areas in which the land revenue is permanently settled), and to report in what respects the administrative machinery can be improved, whether by the reduction of inordinately large charges, by the creation of new subordinate agencies, or otherwise, with the special object of bringing the executive officers of Government into closer touch with the people.”

The committee submitted a valuable report in May 1914, and its recommendations have since been occupying the attention of the local

Government. Independently of this inquiry the Government, in November 1913, posted two battalions of Native Infantry to various centres in Eastern Bengal with the object of strengthening the hands of the local authorities and relieving the police of guard and escort duties. The subsequent exigencies of the war have led to the withdrawal of this force which was more urgently required elsewhere.

Meanwhile in February 1914, the Bengal Government submitted proposals for further legislative action which, in their opinion, the situation demanded. These were the subject of anxious consideration, and in March 1914, the whole position was represented at length to the Secretary of State. Lord Crewe's reply was received in September 1914, and communicated with the remarks of the Government of India to Bengal. By that time the war had, of course, intervened, and materially affected the whole position. For the present, therefore, the question of what may be required when peace is restored stands in abeyance.

The problem of dealing with sedition in Bengal cannot, therefore, be said to have been solved, but during the particular period under review various discoveries by the police ended in prosecutions which, apart from their intrinsic gravity, revealed much that was previously unknown and threw a fresh light upon the whole working of the seditious party.

In the first place seven persons were arrested in Calcutta in November and December 1913 and in January 1914 in what was known as the Raja-hazaar bomb case. The principal accused was in actual possession of implements for the making of bomb cases and of cases in various stages of completion: the allegation of the prosecution was that the remaining six were members of the conspiracy. Six were committed for trial of whom five were convicted, although all but the principal accused were subsequently acquitted on appeal by the Calcutta High Court. The Rajabazaar case.

To that extent the final result was unsatisfactory, but in the course of investigation clues were obtained which led to house searches at Delhi and Lahore in January 1914, and the detection of an extensive and dangerous conspiracy. In the final result out of eleven accused, four persons were sentenced to death, one to transportation for life, and two to long terms of imprisonment. The trial disclosed the full bearing of the activities of the two most sinister figures in the modern history of Indian sedition—Har Dayal, an ex-State scholar, educated at Oxford, who since at least 1908 has been vigorously preaching the liberation of India by revolutionary means and is the author of the *Ghadr* movement, to which more detailed reference will be made later; and Rash Bihari Bose, once a clerk in Government service, but now a fugitive from justice, who in recent times has been the heart and soul of a widespread plot to overthrow British rule. Corrupted by these two men, and Amir Chand, a schoolmaster at Delhi, to whom Har Dayal entrusted his mission when he left to pursue a more open campaign in America, a determined conspiracy was formed to link up Bengal, the United Provinces and the Punjab (with ramifications in the Rajputana States) in a continuous attempt to subvert the administration by overt acts of violence and the distribution of inflammatory literature. Bloodthirsty leaflets were distributed freely; the bomb explosion at Lahore of May 1913 was the handiwork of this gang, while a bomb cap and literature of an atrocious kind were found in Amir Chand's house at Delhi. That the attempt upon the Viceroy's life at Delhi was the work of members of this conspiracy was not set out by the prosecution as part of their case, nor could it be legally proved, but facts were established which were consistent with that theory, and which, in the words of the Sessions Judge, were at least "interesting coincidences." The importance of the conspiracy lay in the revelation of the arch-plotters Har Dayal and Rash Bihari; the discovery of concerted efforts to extend Bengal sedition to Upper India; the virulence of the propaganda, and the deplorable corruption of youth towards its ends. The Delhi conspiracy case.

As an echo of this conspiracy and its branches reference may here be made to two cases of murder of 1912 and 1913, respectively, which were discovered in the course of the inquiries made about this time. The first The Kotah and Arrah murders.

occurred at Kotah and the second at Arrah (Bihar and Orissa), the motive in each being similar, namely, the procuring of funds for revolutionary purposes. It is satisfactory that at least some of those concerned were brought to justice in October 1914.

Muhammadan
politics.

The ferment in Muhammadan circles showed little signs of abating and the Governments of Bengal (in April) and of the United Provinces (in September 1913) both found occasion to invite the attention of the Government of India to the subject. The latter report may be taken as typical of the feeling in Northern India where Muhammadan sentiment is strong, and the Lieutenant-Governor emphasised the increasing bitterness resulting from the Balkan war, the Turkish defeats, certain pronouncements in London as to England's attitude, and the reports of atrocities which were sedulously circulated. The prohibition in July of one such pamphlet entitled "Come over into Macedonia and help us" was the occasion of a somewhat sensational application in the Calcutta High Court, which, although it was rejected, gave a handle to the opponents of the Press Act to urge their views. The conduct of certain sections of the Muhammadan press continued to be unsatisfactory particularly in the Punjab, United Provinces and Bengal, and necessitated restrictive measures. The All-India Muslim League in March 1913 strongly reprobated the speeches of certain Cabinet Ministers, and in April there were two regrettable outrages on Christian cemeteries at Moradabad and Rampur. The reports of the Red Cross Mission under Dr. Ansari (which had left India for Turkey in December 1914) were instrumental in adding to the excitement. The signing of the Treaty of London on the 30th May 1913 did not allay feeling, while the subsequent reoccupation of Adrianople substituted jubilation for despondency. This state of mind tinged the discussions of all topics in which Muhammadans were interested, such as the affairs of the Aligarh College, the projected Muslim University, cow-killing and the relations between Hindus and Muhammadans, and much acrimony was displayed between the older and younger parties. Between March and May 1913 a new society entitled the Khuddam-i-Kaaba was originated from Lucknow under the auspices of Abdul Bari, a Lucknow *maulvi*, Mushir Hussain, a Lucknow barrister, Muhammad Ali, the editor of the *Delhi Comrade*, the tone of whose paper left much to be desired, and Shaukat Ali, a brother of the latter who had once been in Government service. The ostensible object of the Society was the protection of the Muhammadan Holy Places, but its rules and propaganda were calculated to lend themselves to political agitation, and the subsequent formation of various branches has not eased the situation.

The Cawnpore riot

Such was the state of affairs when a riot occurred at Cawnpore on the 3rd August 1913, which afforded an unfortunate excuse for raising the cry of an insult to Islam. In the course of certain municipal road improvements it was decided to acquire a portion of the courtyard of a mosque in the Machhli Bazaar which comprised a place of ablution and a masonry drain. For some years previously the propriety of the acquisition had been the subject of discussion between those interested in the mosque and the municipal board, and the special consideration shown in November 1912 to an adjacent Hindu temple, which was spared from acquisition, probably rendered the Muhammadans more insistent as regards the mosque. After protracted negotiations the Lieutenant-Governor (Sir James Meston) passed orders on the 6th May 1913 that, while no interference with the mosque was contemplated, the washing place was not considered part of the sacred building, and should be removed, another plot of land being given in compensation. The actual demolition took place on the 1st July 1913 without disturbance, but an agitation, largely fomented from outside Cawnpore, at once arose. On the 3rd August, after a public meeting, a crowd marched to the site with the apparent intention of rebuilding the destroyed portion. The police intervened, and a *mêlée* ensued in the course of which the police fired, with the result that 18 rioters were killed and 27 wounded; one constable was also killed and 41 wounded. Criminal proceedings against the rioters followed, and on the 2nd and 6th September 105 persons were committed to take their trial at Sessions. Meanwhile the agitation redoubled and extreme bitterness was engendered, constituting a most serious complication in a situation already superheated with

excitement. The Muhammadan press all over India became extremely violent, necessitating action in several instances, of which the most conspicuous examples were the *Zamindar* and *Habl-ul-Matin*, whose security was forfeited, and the *Al Hilal*, from which security was demanded. After consultation with the officiating Lieutenant-Governor, Sir D. C. Baillie, Lord Hardinge decided that it was imperative that this cause of controversy should be removed, and on the 13th October he inspected the scene of the riot and interviewed various leading Muhammadans. Later on the same day a deputation of the latter presented an address regretting the disturbance of the peace and condemning the action of the law-breakers, and with an expression of loyalty to the Crown they left the decision in His Excellency's hands. Lord Hardinge, after reaffirming the consistent policy of Government towards Indian religious beliefs, expressed his earnest desire that peace should be restored, and gave his decision that an arcade should be constructed over the land in dispute, thus securing space for the pavement below and restoring, on a higher level, the relative positions of the buildings pertaining to the mosque. Further, while condemning the action of those who had been guilty of violence, he emphasised his wish to show mercy and to see the sad incidents of the riot buried in oblivion. His Excellency accordingly announced that as an act of clemency, and with the concurrence of Sir James Meston and Sir D. C. Baillie, the criminal proceedings would be stayed, and this was done the same day.

The Viceroy's action, coupled with a sympathetic review by him in the September Session of the Legislative Council, served materially to ameliorate the situation, and with the restoration of peace in the Balkans the tension of the preceding months was much relieved. It could be generally stated that as a whole the state of Muhammadan feeling from now onwards till the war manifested a return to greater sobriety of thought and expression.

It will be convenient to mention here an incident which actually occurred after the outbreak of war, but which had its origin in circumstances preceding it. The *Komagata Maru* case.

The question of the emigration of Indians to British Dominions generally loomed large during Lord Hardinge's administration and is dealt with elsewhere, but the particular restrictions existing in Canada led to serious consequences within India itself. Without entering into details, it is sufficient to say that such restrictions exist, but towards the end of 1913 a rumour prevailed, particularly in the Far East, that they were about to be relaxed. One Gurdit Singh, a Punjabi, who had worked as a contractor in the Far East, appeared in Hong-Kong in January 1914, and by advertisement collected a number of Sikhs, who were under the impression that he would be able to secure their entry into Canada. A steamer, the *Komagata Maru*, was eventually chartered, and leaving Hong-Kong on the 4th April, reached Vancouver on the 23rd May with 376 passengers on board, all, except 25 Muhammadans, being Sikhs. Thereupon a deadlock ensued. The Canadian authorities refused to allow the immigrants to land and after prolonged negotiations, litigation, and an actual encounter with the police, the *Komagata Maru* weighed anchor on its return voyage on the 23rd July. By this time the passengers were in a very dangerous frame of mind. Many were obsessed with an exaggerated idea of their own power, full of disloyal and seditious theories inculcated by revolutionary leaders, intensely irritated at the treatment meted out to them, and ready for any mischief. The authorities at Hong-Kong declined to allow the boat to touch there, but it eventually reached Kobe on the 21st August, where Gurdit Singh untruly represented the party to be entirely destitute. The Consul-General at Kobe telegraphed to India that the only possible solution was to repatriate the men at the public expense, and the Government of India, which was then unaware of many facts regarding the voyage, considered it desirable to accede to this recommendation and not to leave a large number of destitute Sikhs stranded in a foreign land. The Consul-General accordingly supplied funds, and on the 27th September the vessel reached the Hughli, having then 321 passengers on board. By that time, in consequence of the war, the Government of India had deemed it necessary to arm themselves by the Ingress into India Ordinance with special powers to control the movements of new arrivals, and with authority so given a party of

civil and police officers boarded the boat (which reached Budge Budge on the 29th September) with instructions to convey the passengers to the Punjab. On arrival at the quay the Sikhs declined to disembark, but eventually did so, when after an abortive attempt to march on Calcutta they opened fire upon the police, and provoked a riot in which unfortunately a considerable loss of life occurred, while many of the Sikh passengers and police were injured, before the disturbance was quelled. Two hundred and eleven persons were arrested, while 28 (including Gurdit Singh, who has never since been traced) escaped. Of these a few were arrested later.

On receipt of intimation of this deplorable occurrence, in which the Punjab was as much interested as Bengal, the Viceroy decided that a full investigation was called for, and His Excellency accordingly appointed a committee with the Hon'ble Sir W. Vincent, Secretary in the Legislative Department, as Chairman, comprising two officials and two Indian non-officials, to inquire into all the circumstances of the affair. That body submitted its report on the 3rd December. Its findings fully justified the action of the Government officials. It was shown that their well-meant efforts to assist the Sikhs were misunderstood, and that the latter had resorted to violence which necessitated forcible measures of repression. The Government of India accepted these conclusions, but decided that further criminal proceedings were inexpedient. The men were accordingly despatched as soon as possible to the Punjab, and either released or dealt with there as circumstances required, under the Ingress into India Ordinance.

The War.

War was declared between Great Britain and the German and Austro-Hungarian Empires on the 4th and 12th August 1914, respectively, and from thence onwards became the dominating factor in the situation. Throughout this period of stress the attitude of India, as a whole, was one of steadfast loyalty and confidence in the ultimate success of the British cause. In numerous ways this spirit was demonstrated from the eagerness to respond to the call to arms and most generous contributions towards the forces in the field, to manifold and influential declarations of the unity of British and Indian interests, and a real desire on all sides to refrain from action likely to lead to controversy and disagreement. A summary like the present is primarily a chronicle of events rather than an appreciation of political thought and tendencies, and if in the subsequent paragraphs reference is made to untoward incidents of an anti-Government character, this striking and outstanding fact of Indian loyalty during a time of great trial should not thereby be obscured.

The *Ghadr* conspiracy.

The most difficult developments with which the Government of India were faced arose from what is commonly known as the *Ghadr* conspiracy. In 1912-13, one Bhagwan Singh in Vancouver, and Har Dayal (who has already been mentioned) in San Francisco, commenced the open preaching of an Indian revolution, and the movement spread rapidly among Indian emigrants in the west of America. A Hindustani Association, which subsequently developed into the Hindi Association of the Pacific Coast, with a press named the "Yugantar Ashram," was founded, and the first issue of the *Ghadr* (mutiny) newspaper appeared on the 1st November 1913. In the words of the Lahore Tribunal it was "a paper of a violent anti-British nature, playing on every passion it could possibly excite, preaching murder and mutiny in every sentence, urging all Indians to go to India with the express object of committing murder, causing revolution and expelling the British Government by any and every means, and holding up to admiration and as examples to follow every seditionist and murderer who sprang into temporary notoriety." Attempts to circulate this paper in practically every centre throughout the world where Indians congregate have since been reported, while naturally circulation in India itself was sedulously essayed. Meetings in America were continuous between December 1913 and August 1914, and the *Komagata Maru* incident was eagerly seized upon. Emissaries to India were sent in advance, and from August 1914 onwards the regular shipment of recruits to the revolutionary cause began in accordance with a prearranged plan. Under the Ingress into India Ordinance some of these were interned and others restricted to their villages, but many passed through while others broke parole. Under their

instigation, in alliance with the local elements of disorder, outrages soon commenced in the Punjab, comprising murders, gang dacoities and robberies, a common feature of which was the reckless use of arms and explosives. Without attempting an enumeration of details, a report received from the Punjab Government, dated the 25th February 1915, gave particulars of no fewer than 24 incidents of this kind and 11 attempted derailments of trains. Throughout this time persistent efforts were made to tamper with the troops throughout the cantonments of Northern India, while attacks on arsenals and actual outbreaks were planned; meetings between the conspirators were incessant, the Bengali plotter Rash Bihari Bose appeared on the scene, and fresh recruits were eagerly sought for. All this was to culminate in a general rising planned for the 21st February, for which bombs were prepared, arms and flags made ready, and a declaration of war drawn up. Fortunately, the authorities were on the alert; the conspirators, suspicious of discovery, endeavoured to push forward their scheme for the 19th February, but on that date, their headquarters at Lahore was raided, several persons arrested and their paraphernalia of arms, etc., seized; on the 24th February a further raid in the same city discovered five bombs. The projected outbreak at Ferozepur on the same night failed, when it was found that the troops were on the alert, while that at Rawalpindi never materialised. By this time from confessing accused and others the police were in possession of much information; arrests followed and although sporadic outrages continued, the plot may be said then to have been broken for the time being.

In view of the serious state of affairs disclosed (coupled with the events in the South-Western Punjab and in Bengal described below) the Government of India found it necessary to pass in the Imperial Legislative Council the Defence of India Act on the 18th March 1915, which permitted of the trial of certain offences in notified areas before a specially constituted tribunal whose decision was final. These provisions were extended to certain districts of the Punjab on the 22nd March 1915; of Bengal on the 23rd April and 10th June 1915; to the Balasore district of Bihar and Orissa on the 22nd September 1915; and to the Benares district of the United Provinces on the 7th October 1915.

After a lengthy investigation into the events that had centred round Lahore 64 persons were brought before such a tribunal and on the 13th September 1915, 24 were sentenced to death, 27 to transportation for life and 6 to various terms of imprisonment. After the consideration of memorials presented to the local Government and the Government of India the Lieutenant-Governor remitted the death sentence in one instance and the Government of India in 16; various reductions in the other sentences were also ordered by the local Government. A supplementary trial was later instituted against 74 further accused, subsequently traced or originally absconding, with the result that 61 were sentenced to death, 45 to transportation for life, 8 to terms of imprisonment + 15 acquitted. One of the death sentences was commuted to transportation for life + the same man was charged with 11 others + died in transportation. 4 of the same group were charged with 11 others + died in transportation. 4 of the same group were charged with 11 others + died in transportation.

The evidence thus disclosed established to the hilt the dangerous character of this widespread plot, and the orders passed disposed of many of the most desperate men implicated. Others, however, remained at large or undetected, and the need for watchfulness in the Sikh districts continued undiminished. Although other outrages occurred (the most daring being an attack on the 12th June 1915 on a military guard over a bridge in the Amritsar district, in which a havildar and sentry were shot and 4 sepoys wounded) they were sporadic only, and thanks to the loyal co-operation of the people generally there was no recrudescence of any organised movement.

Mention has already been made of the prominence given in the revolutionary programme to the seduction of troops. Nothing happily occurred in India as serious as the mutiny of the 5th Light Infantry at Singapore on the 15th February 1915, but scarcely an important cantonment in Northern India was left unvisited by the conspirators. In the majority of instances their efforts were unsuccessful, but certain members of the 23rd Cavalry at Mian Mir and of the 12th Cavalry at Meerut were contaminated and were eventually tried by court martial. The latter case was specially important in that 10 bombs were actually introduced into the lines; an additional clue to Attempts to tamper with troops.

the former case was obtained by the explosion of a bomb in the regimental luggage on the 13th May 1915 while it was being unloaded at a railway station.

On the 28th June two Muhammadan sowars of the 8th Cavalry at Jhansi broke out and caused the death of

Though the element of religious fanaticism entered into this case, it was a significant sidelight on the endeavours to undermine the fealty of the Indian Army which, except in a very few isolated instances, remained proof to such temptations.

Disturbances in the
Western Punjab.

Another disturbance which troubled the peace of the Punjab arose in January-February 1915 in the Jhang district. The unusually high prevailing prices of food grains was causing anxiety everywhere throughout India. In this district, beginning with a few cases of raiding of shops, lawlessness rapidly developed into the formation of regular bands of bad characters and the organised pillage of the countryside. This movement soon assumed the character of a racial feud, the victims being almost exclusively Hindus and the aggressors Muhammadans and spread to the adjoining districts of Muzaffargarh, and, to a less extent, Multan. Prompt measures were taken; troops were marched through the tract and additional officers and police drafted in, with the result that by the middle of March order was restored. Though doubtless an echo of the unrest caused by the war and the *Ghadr* conspiracy, this outbreak was not primarily anti-Government, but economic and racial. The offenders were brought before a special tribunal under the Defence of India Act, before whom, in Jhang alone (where 60 dacoities had occurred) 381 persons were convicted.

Seditious outrages
in Bengal.

When so much was happening in the Punjab much improvement in Bengal was scarcely to be expected, and the seditious party there lost no time in endeavouring to make the most of the much hoped for weakening of the administration through the war. Throughout the period *bhadralog* dacoities recurred, and in February 1915 occurred two outrages by armed gangs in Calcutta itself, motor cars being used for the first time by the bandits as a means of escape and large sums stolen. Towards the end of the year 1915 other robberies of this type in the city created considerable alarm. These were unfortunately facilitated by a serious theft of 50 revolvers and 50,000 cartridges from the firm of Messrs. Rodda & Co., of Calcutta, and murderous assaults on the police and on those loyally inclined were regrettably numerous, resulting in the death of a considerable number of victims. The conduct of the police, in spite of the attempts made to intimidate them, has throughout been admirable and beyond reproach.

The Balasore case.

The efforts of the police to bring these miscreants to justice were for the most part infructuous, but in September 1915, an affray in the Balasore district of Bihar and Orissa removed certain of the most dangerous leaders. Clues had taken the police to the town of Balasore, whence they traced a hiding place in the jungles of the Morbhanj State. Proceeding there they found their quarry gone, but on the succeeding day a party of five was detected endeavouring to reach the railway and rounded up by the district magistrate and an armed force. The gang (which had previously killed an unoffending villager) promptly opened fire, to which a reply was returned by the police, with the result that two men (both absconding murderers from Calcutta) were killed and three arrested; of the latter two were subsequently hanged and one sentenced to imprisonment.

Otherwise the Government of Bengal endeavoured to enforce a stricter control by the restriction of the movements of suspects under the powers conferred by rules issued under the Defence of India Act, and persons were thus dealt with.

The Muhammadan
attitude during
the war.

The participation of Turkey in the war in November 1914 placed the members of the Muhammadan community in a still more difficult position than had the earlier troubles in the Balkans, but along with the rest of India they loyally rallied to the side of the Crown. Despite persistent efforts to represent the war as one of religion they stood firm, while a declaration by Government

as to its attitude towards Islam in general and the Holy Places in particular, elaborated by Lord Hardinge personally in various public utterances, served greatly to maintain tranquillity. Against a few prominent agitators only was it necessary to take action. Thus the movements of the editor of the *Zamindar* newspaper were restricted in October 1914; the security of the *Comrade*, *Hamdard* and *Al Hilal* newspapers was forfeited in November, while in March 1915 Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali were directed to take up their residence in a defined spot and to refrain from political activities. Resort to measures of control was, in fact, less frequent than when the cause of excitement had been less acute. That the feelings of Muhammadans should be wounded by the course of world events was inevitable; that they have loyally assisted the Administration in this crisis has been greatly to their credit.

Of much that has happened since the outbreak of war it is impossible now to write; that His Majesty's enemies have made determined efforts in many quarters to destroy the peace of His Indian Empire is known to all, but the disclosure of details at this stage would be inappropriate. It remains only to refer to the particular measures taken by the Government of India to deal with the hostile aliens with whom India was concerned, and the problems which were solely the outcome of the war.

In August 1914, there were to be found in India many subjects of the German and Austrian Empires, some engaged in business and a large number in missionary enterprises which had spread all over the country, but particularly in Madras, Bombay and Bihar and Orissa. The policy of the Government from the outset was, without imposing needless hardships, to ensure that these people should do no damage to the State. Those within the military ages were sent as prisoners of war to Ahmednagar; all others were registered, travelling without permission prohibited, departure from India restricted to certain ports and dates and such measure of supervision ordered as the circumstances of individual cases demanded; in some instances surveillance at their homes sufficed; in others concentration in civil charge at specified centres was directed. If leniency was found to be misplaced, additional restrictions were imposed. As the war went on, however, circumstances changed. The methods of German savagery engendered feelings of bitterness which could not be ignored, and which were inevitably reflected in the attitude of these enemy foreigners towards the Administration. The strain of supervision was intensified and allegations of its inadequacy commenced to be made. With the approval of the Secretary of State, therefore, it was decided to repatriate those of non-military age who were not exempted for special reasons. Individual cases were all scrutinised by local Governments and permission to remain or to remove to neutral countries given wherever fairness justified that course. In the final event 362 men, 319 women and 261 children were retransferred to Europe in two voyages of the S.S. *Golconda*, leaving in India, but still under the surveillance described above, 81 men, 250 women and 128 children.

The question of German and Austrian missions occasioned much anxious consideration. The Government of India were fully conscious of the good work done by them in many areas, more particularly among the backward races, and of the part played by them in such philanthropic activities as education and medical relief. Summarily to close all such missions would merely have put many of His Majesty's subjects to the greatest inconvenience, and it was at first trusted that the measures indicated above would suffice. This hope, however, was not realised. Complaints of mischief done among mission converts made themselves heard, and in June 1915 it was decided that all financial assistance given to those bodies from public revenues (some Rs. 2 lakhs annually in all) should cease after reasonable notice. For the conduct of the work of these missions local Governments made such arrangements as were appropriate, while the members of the missions were brought under the general repatriation scheme already described. As to the future of German and Austrian missions after the close of the war the Secretary of State was addressed.

With regard to Turkish subjects a somewhat different policy was adopted. These fell within two main categories—a small minority of European Turks

Treatment of
hostile aliens of
German and
Austrian
nationality.

Treatment of
hostile missions.

Treatment of
Turkish subjects.

and a considerable number of Asiatic Turks, many of whom were harmless and in fact of anti-Turkish sentiment. All were alike placed under restriction when Turkey became embroiled, and the European Turks were repatriated as soon as possible; over the rest such control was exercised as suited each individual case.

Treatment of Bulgarian subjects. The number of Bulgarian subjects in India was insignificant, and no difficulty was experienced in exercising adequate supervision over them.

Control of the press during the war. Other important war questions which occupied attention were the prevention of the improper publication of war news and the dissemination of correct information regarding the war. The former fell within the sphere of the Military Censorship, assisted by the Naval and Military News (Emergency) Ordinance, which Lord Hardinge promulgated in August 1914. On the civil side, however, officers were appointed to act as informal press advisers to those newspapers which might desire to consult them regarding particular articles or messages, and in a varying degree advantage was taken of this scheme.

Dissemination of war news. Towards the correct instruction of the public in the origin, history and progress of the war all local Governments were desired to adopt those means best suited to local circumstances, whether these were the issue of communiqués, the delivery of lectures, the dissemination of literature or instructions in schools and colleges. Above all reliance was placed on the frank intercourse in private conversation between Government servants and those with whom they came in contact.

Volunteering by Government servants. The extent to and the conditions under which the civil servants of Government should be allowed to volunteer for active service was the subject of much discussion and was eventually regularised by a series of orders, which it is needless to specify in detail. It may suffice to say that it was the object of Government, consistently with the efficient maintenance of internal administration, to allow all who could be spared to participate in this world-wide struggle.

GENERAL.

For rather more than a year of the period under review the Home Department was under the control of the late Home Member Sir John Jenkins, K.C.S.I., whose premature death in 1912 was a serious loss to the Government of India owing to his remarkable knowledge of administration in all its branches and to his breadth of view. He was succeeded by the Hon'ble Sir R. Craddock, K.C.S.I., whose experience of administration is not less than that of his predecessor, while his devotion to duty is an example to all.

The Department has been fortunate in its Secretaries in the Hon'ble Sir A. Earle, K.C.I.E., and the Hon'ble Mr. Wheeler, C.S.I., both of whom are officers of very exceptional ability and energy.

Since the outbreak of war, the brunt of the extra work occasioned by it has largely fallen upon the Home Department, and all belonging to the Department from the Home Member to the lowest clerk have displayed a loyalty and devotion to duty in coping with it that are beyond all praise.

FINANCE DEPARTMENT.

II

THE CURRENCY SYSTEM.

THE most important event in the currency history of the period is the appointment of the Royal Commission on Indian Finance and Currency. During 1912 the financial policy of the India Office had been vigorously attacked in the Press in India, and the matter after a time attracted attention in England. A series of articles on the same subject and similar in tenor to those in the Indian Press appeared in the "Times" and eventually a motion was made in the House of Commons for the appointment of a Select Committee to enquire into the administration of Indian finances. The motion itself was negatived, but in the course of the debate the Prime Minister expressed the view that the time had come for an enquiry, preferably by a Royal Commission, into the whole organisation of the finances of India and of its currency system. The Commission was appointed in April 1913, the terms of reference being "to enquire into the location and management of the general balances of the Government of India: the sale in London of Council Bills and transfers: the measures taken by the Indian Government and the Secretary of State to maintain the exchange value of the rupee in pursuance of or supplementary to the recommendations of the Indian Currency Committee of 1898, more particularly with regard to the location, disposition and employment of the Gold Standard and Paper Currency Reserves: and whether the existing practice in these matters is conducive to the interests of India; also to report as to the suitability of the financial organisation and procedure of the India Office". The final report of the Commission was received in India in 1914 and early in the summer of that year their recommendations were referred for the opinions of Local Governments and representative commercial institutions. When war broke out, however, it was decided to defer the consideration of the report until the restoration of normal times. Accordingly the recommendations of the Commission still remain *sub judice*. It may, however, be mentioned that the report afforded ample vindication of the general policy of the Government of India in matters of finance and currency in past years. A further circumstance of special interest is that, during the year 1914-15, to meet certain financial exigencies arising out of the war the Government of India found it advantageous to adopt, provisionally, certain important recommendations which the Commission had made.

The Royal Commission on Indian Finance and Currency.

At the commencement of the period under review certain important questions were outstanding relating to the currency system, *e.g.*, the minimum stock of gold and gold securities required to be held in the Gold Standard Reserve apart from any sovereigns which might be held in the Currency Reserve and the treasury balances; and the determination of the proportion of silver to be held in the Gold Standard Reserve and the Paper Currency Reserve, respectively, and the location (*i.e.*, whether in London or in India) of the gold held in the Paper Currency Reserve. The question of throwing open the Indian mints to the coinage of gold which had been taken up during Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty was also revived during the period under review. These questions were duly dealt with, but the discussions regarding them were eventually superseded by the recommendations of the Royal Commission.

Other Currency questions.

The period witnessed a continuance of the process of absorption of gold coins. The total volume of gold passed into circulation since the Gold Standard first became effective in 1899 rose from £32·7 million as estimated on the 1st of April 1911, to £70·4 million on the 1st of April 1915. It is not suggested that the whole of this remained in active circulation, but at the same time the period provided considerable evidence of the increasing use of gold for currency purposes, especially in the Punjab and Western India.

The circulation of silver and gold coins

As a result of unusual activity in the wheat and jute trades, fresh coinage of silver to the extent of 25½ crores of rupees was carried out during the years 1912—1914. The purchase of the necessary bullion was attended by

certain difficulties and this led incidentally to important proposals for the systematising of the arrangements for purchases of silver in future. These were still under the Secretary of State's consideration at the close of the period.

Paper Currency.

The period under review was one not only of rapid increase in the note circulation, but of marked attention to and development in matters of paper currency administration and procedure. The growth of circulation had by the year 1911 already become so steady and assured that the Paper Currency Act was amended in that year so as to take power to increase the fiduciary portion of the Paper Currency Reserve from 12 to 14 crores of rupees and to hold the addition in gold securities. In 1911-12 the hundred rupee note was made universal throughout British India,—a development which lent a further impulse to the increase in total circulation. Further, towards the close of the period an important currency reform was introduced by the adoption of the Bank of England's practice of cancelling notes on presentation instead of re-issuing them. With a view to enhance the convenience of the note issue and to encourage the use of notes, steps were also taken to increase to a very substantial extent the facilities for encashment. Special arrangements for this purpose were in the first instance made with the object of restoring confidence during the period of panic which followed the outbreak of war, but these arrangements, which included the utilisation of the agency both of district treasuries and the Presidency Banks and their branches, were subsequently placed on a permanent footing in pursuance of Government's general policy in this matter. Certain other important proposals affecting the paper currency, of which the most important was one to introduce an improved form of currency notes, came under thorough investigation during the period, and only failed to mature owing to the outbreak of war which rendered it advisable to postpone for the time being the public discussion of such questions.

BANKING.

The banking crisis of 1913-14.

The year 1913-14 saw the fall of a number of, generally speaking, recklessly managed banking institutions in Northern and Western India, resulting in a serious weakening of confidence in almost every institution bearing the name of bank. The situation was dealt with by Government through the agency of the Presidency Banks of Bengal and Bombay,—a policy which, though adversely criticised in certain quarters on the ground that the direct intervention of Government was called for, was eventually endorsed by sound commercial opinion. As soon as the crisis developed, arrangements were made to increase considerably the ordinary interest-free Government balances which are kept with the Presidency Banks, so as to enable them to render such assistance as they might deem necessary to institutions which though otherwise solvent were in temporary difficulties owing to a panic among their depositors. Further, before the crisis arose, the Government of India had, in pursuance of a policy previously decided upon, applied to the Secretary of State for permission to make loans to the Presidency Banks during the busy trade season up to 3 millions sterling at a rate of interest below the current bank rate. No loans were actually made under the authority thus obtained from the Secretary of State, but the fact that this assistance was in reserve materially strengthened the hands of the Presidency Banks in dealing with the banking crisis.

PUBLIC DEBT.

The net addition during the period to the Public Debt, both permanent and temporary, after allowing for the discharge of some temporary debt previously outstanding, amounted to £18 million. This figure also takes into account the temporary borrowings (£14 million) made during 1914-15 and 1915-16 to meet the situation created by the war. The most important question of policy affecting the Public Debt dealt with during the period was that of the means to be adopted to obtain a larger volume of funds in India for the financing of capital requirements. The question became prominent as a result of the serious decline in the price of consols and other gilt-edged securities which had occurred in recent years and the sympathetic fall in the

price of the securities of the Indian Government in the London money market. As the best means of testing the capacity of our internal resources, it was decided, in the first instance, to increase the amount of the annual rupee loan raised in India. Thus 5 crores of rupees were taken in 1914, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ crores in 1915, outside the special Post Office subscriptions referred to in paragraph 25. It was also decided to raise the limit for investments in the Post Office Savings Banks, and, as a result of the more liberal conditions offered, the Savings Banks deposits rose from 23 crores at the beginning of 1914-15 to $24\frac{1}{2}$ crores by the 31st July 1914. The outbreak of war, however, resulted in a temporary decline in the Savings Banks deposits and the ultimate result of the policy here described remains to be seen. Other proposals were also considered with a view to rendering Government rupee paper more attractive. It was decided, for example, to introduce the bearer bond form of security as soon as this could conveniently be done, and certain minor improvements in the procedure relating to transactions in Government paper received attention.

CAPITAL EXPENDITURE.

During the period the capital outlay on productive and protective irrigation works was increased from £30 $\frac{1}{2}$ and £3 $\frac{1}{2}$ million respectively to £37 and £5 $\frac{3}{4}$ million, respectively, while the area commanded by both classes of works rose from 48 to 50 million acres. The average annual outlay amounted to £1 $\frac{1}{2}$ million on productive works and £500,000 on those of the protective class—the aggregate expenditure thus exceeding the scale of £1 $\frac{1}{2}$ million a year recommended by the Irrigation Commission of 1901-03. The net profit on productive works, after meeting charges for interest rose from £1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to £2 million and the yield now represents about 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the capital outlay. As regards capital expenditure on railways, the most important event of the period is the achievement of a £12 million programme in the year 1913-14 and a programme of approximately the same amount in 1914-15. As incidentally mentioned elsewhere, it was found necessary as a result of the war to reduce the railway programme of 1915-16 to £8 million. Owing, however, to the shortage of supplies due to home factories and workshops in India being occupied with the manufacture of munitions and to the enforcement during the year of a drastic policy of retrenchment, the actual expenditure of the year is likely to fall considerably below the provision originally allowed.

Certain important improvements of financial procedure in regard to railway expenditure were effected during the period. Thus special arrangements were made to secure fuller control over the special working expenses of railways, *e.g.*, the cost of renewals, betterments, etc., expenditure on which is closely allied to capital outlay. A special procedure was also devised with the object of introducing greater elasticity into the system of indenting for railway materials from Europe and thus preventing large lapses in the capital grants for railways.

The expenditure involved by the construction of the new Imperial Capital was clearly not expenditure which could be charged to revenue and met from the proceeds of ordinary taxation. An alternative proposal that it should be financed from a special loan was on various grounds considered impracticable and it was decided that the construction of the new Capital should be dealt with in the same manner as productive public works and financed like them according to the circumstances of each year partly from revenue surpluses and other available resources and partly from borrowings. It was also arranged that a *pro-forma* account bringing together all expenditure attributable to the change of Capital, wherever recorded in the accounts, should be appended every year for public information to the Financial Statement for so long as this might be found necessary.

The financial stringency created by the war has impeded progress in the latter part of the period under review, and it is expected that the outlay on the Delhi Project up to March 1916 will amount to £1 $\frac{1}{2}$ million only out of a total of £6 million for which the Secretary of State's sanction has been obtained.

REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, TAXATION, ETC.

Immediately before the commencement of Lord Hardinge's Viceroyalty, there had been a period of temporary financial depression which necessitated extra taxation amounting to approximately £1 million per annum. This however was at once succeeded by a period of financial prosperity extending over the first three of the five years under review. During these years there was a very considerable expansion of ordinary revenues due to active trade and unusually favourable agricultural conditions, while, in addition, large, though temporary, windfalls accrued as the result of the phenomenal prices which China was prepared to pay for Indian opium during the last few years immediately preceding the extinction of the export trade to that country. The result was a series of large surpluses which would have been larger still but for special grants given either in connection with the budget of the year or towards the end of the year as the probability of an unexpectedly large surplus matured into certainty. In 1913-14, however, the export of opium to China came unexpectedly to an end and by a coincidence the growth in ordinary revenue received a simultaneous check, for the time being at any rate. Certain important grants to Local Governments, provided for in the budget estimates of this latter year were duly made, but by the close of the year, though the actual surplus obtained was satisfactory the immediate outlook had become less favourable. Owing to famine in certain parts and the trade depression which resulted from banking and commercial failures in Northern and Western India, the budget estimates for 1914-15 disclosed only a moderate margin of surplus revenue. Then the European war broke out and the year ended with a deficit of £2 million. Of the year 1915-16 it is sufficient to say that the continuing dislocation of the country's finances caused by the war made it necessary, in spite of rigid economy, to estimate for a deficit of £3 million, extra taxation being avoided only by the expedient of meeting the deficit from temporary borrowings. The following table gives in a concise form the main financial results of each year of the period under review and the extent to which the Imperial surpluses referred to above were distributed among Local Governments.

(In thousands of £.)

(in thousands of Rs.)

	IMPERIAL SURPLUS.		Actual Imperial surplus but for special grants made to Local Governments through Revised Estimate.	Special grants made to Local Governments through Revised Estimate.		Portion of Imperial surplus attributable to opium.
	Budgeted.	Actual.				
1	2	3	4	5		6
				From opium surplus.	From ordinary surplus.	
1910-11 . .	376	3,936	5,791	981	874	2,853
1911-12 . .	819	3,940	5,930	566	1,424	1,860
1912-13 . .	1,478*	3,107	7,234	460	3,667	1,527
1913-14 . .	1,326*	2,312	2,312
1914-15 . .	1,256	-1,953†
1915-16 . .	-2,957	-3,367†

* Recurring grants amounting to 833 in 1912-13 and 1,330 in 1913-14 were made to Local Governments before the surpluses stated here were declared.

† Approximate.

The general policy underlying these dispositions, however, requires further explanation. In the first place, the abnormal opium receipts were dealt with in a special manner for the reason that revenue which was so wholly exceptional in character and amount could not properly be put into the general resources of the country to meet permanent and recurring expenditure.

An estimate was accordingly framed of what the normal receipts under this head would be and it was decided that the amount by which in any year the actual receipts should exceed this standard figure should be kept apart from ordinary revenues and employed on special objects not involving permanent liabilities. Of this latter outlay two-thirds were to be devoted to the discharge of the temporary debt which had accumulated during the famine and the general financial crisis of 1907-08, and the remaining one-third to initial expenditure on important educational and sanitary measures.

It might have been expected, on the other hand, that the Imperial surpluses derived from sources other than opium would have been devoted to the remission of taxation generally, or at any rate to the remission of the additional taxation imposed in 1910-11. It was felt, however, that a wider view should prevail. India could not and cannot now be regarded as a fully developed country; the equipment and the scale of expenditure then current could not be accepted as sufficient. It was, therefore, decided that the interests of the people would be better served by devoting the surpluses in question to the financing of comprehensive schemes of moral and material reform. As the outcome of this view considerable sums were allotted to the promotion of education, in pursuance of the announcement made by His Majesty the King-Emperor at the Durbar. Important grants were also made for the improvement of sanitation, while in addition funds were allotted to other miscellaneous needs such as the development of agriculture and of the system of medical relief. Assistance was also given to the carrying out of a number of important schemes of public improvement and for the development of the resources of backward provinces. The table below shows the important grants made during the period in question and the main purposes to which they were allotted:—

Statement showing special grants made from Imperial revenues during 1910-11 to 1915-16.

(In thousands of £.)

	1910-11.		1911-12.		1912-13.		1913-14.		1914-15.		1915-16.	
	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	Recurring.	Non-recurring.
Education	601	400	2,560	767	...	827	67	827	...
Sanitation	380	...	333	...	1,000	300	...	540	...	340	...
Medical Relief, etc.	67
Agriculture, etc.	133	67
Grants for other special purposes.	...	874	...	1,524	...	333	...	530	...	100
Grants for general purposes (discretionary grants).	667
Total	1,855	...	1,990	400	4,560	1,067	664	1,167	167	1,167	...

The initial period of the opium agreement of 1907 expired in 1910 and the negotiations for its continuance culminated in a renewed agreement accepted during 1911. This provided that the progressive annual reduction of exports of opium to China which had been in force since 1908 should continue for the unexpired portion of the full term originally agreed upon, *viz*, 10 years. The later agreement, however, contained certain new stipulations of which the most important was that exports from India should immediately be stopped at any time within this period if it could be proved that the production of the drug within China itself had been completely extinguished. But with the outbreak of the Chinese revolution fresh difficulties arose. The Republican Government initiated a policy of arbitrary interference with the wholesale trade in Indian opium, the terms of the opium agreement being set at defiance. In the end the outlet for Indian opium was completely stopped and the Government of India had no alternative but to discontinue exports with effect from the year 1913.

Opium policy and revenue.

There remained the problem of the disposal of the stocks of opium which had been exported to China in strict accordance with the terms of the opium agreement, but had failed to pass into consumption owing to the irregular restrictions placed by the Chinese authorities on the wholesale trade. Efforts were at one time made to put pressure on the Government of India to withdraw these stocks and purchase them at the cost of Indian revenues. The proposal was vigorously and successfully opposed by Lord Hardinge who declined to consent to this final attempt upon the Government of India. By the end of the period the problem had practically solved itself. The Chinese Government effected a compromise with the merchants, allowing them free access to all provinces still open to the import of Indian opium on payment of a fee of 3,500 dollars per chest and subsequently the whole of the stocks lying at Hong-Kong were purchased by the Chinese Government.

The export trade in Indian opium is now confined to the non-China markets of the Far East and the annual exports are limited to an amount (in 1915-16, 13,200 chests) which is estimated to represent the *bonâ fide* internal requirements of the countries of import. Towards the close of the period the Straits Settlements Government arranged to obtain its supply of opium direct from the Government of India instead of by purchase at the auctions, and a similar arrangement was afterwards concluded with the Government of Hong-Kong, the price in each case being fixed at Rs2,000 a chest, under agreements which are to remain operative for five years. The new arrangements, apart from their convenience as a means of steadying prices, mark an important step towards the better control of the opium trade in the Far East, and there are already indications that other administrations will eventually take advantage of the system.

Malwa Opium.

Various measures were adopted in order to meet the claims of the Malwa States arising out of their exclusion from the China trade. For example, the Government of India agreed to assist in the dispersal of accumulated stocks by purchasing considerable quantities for excise purposes in British India. During the period, too, poppy cultivation in the Malwa States was reduced to a substantial extent, this result being achieved, as in the opium producing areas of British India, by the substitution of at least equally profitable food crops.

PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL FINANCE.

The Permanent Provincial Settlements.

The system of quinquennial Provincial settlements was abolished in 1904 when the form of settlement known as *quasi-permanent* was introduced. During the period under review, as a result of a careful examination of the terms of the settlements then obtaining, a further advance in the same direction was made, the new arrangements being expressly described as absolutely permanent, subject to certain special contingencies, and the obligations of the Government of India on the one hand and the Provincial Governments on the other being more exactly defined.

Before the new system was inaugurated, the terms of the existing settlements were overhauled and revised. The experience since gained has been to show that the new settlements thus introduced have on the whole provided adequately for the needs of the provinces. There was, however, one notable exception, and towards the close of the period it became necessary to effect a substantial improvement in the terms of the Burma Settlement. It may also be mentioned that during the period temporary settlements were concluded, as a preliminary measure, with the three new provinces formed by the territorial redistribution announced at the Darbar of 1911. The conclusion of permanent settlements with these provinces has been postponed until the end of the war.

The Punjab.

Under the permanent settlement concluded with the Punjab, the Provincial balances rapidly assumed very large proportions as the result mainly of abnormal capital receipts derived from the sale of Government estates and waste lands in the canal colonies. At the request of the Local Government it was agreed to convert one crore of the Punjab balances into a recurring assignment in perpetuity of 3½ lakhs of rupees.

Important progress was made during the five years under review in working out an exact scheme of financial control and in the direction of enhancing the financial powers of various classes of subordinate authorities in India. During Lord Minto's administration an audit resolution was prepared enumerating those financial matters in which the Government of India are precluded from acting without previous reference to the Secretary of State. A similar document has now been prepared defining the financial powers of Local Governments and enhancing them in certain important directions, and a set of rules has also been drawn up, defining the maximum extent to which the Government of India and Local Governments may re-delegate their own financial powers to subordinate authorities. This important scheme of codification and decentralization had not been worked out in all its details before the period closed; but the main questions of principle involved had been submitted for the orders of the Secretary of State.

Proposals for the delegation of financial powers, etc

The scheme regulating the apportionment of Famine expenditure between Imperial and Provincial revenues which was introduced in 1907-08 came under review towards the close of Lord Hardinge's Viceroyalty and proposals involving a radical revision of the existing system, which had been found unduly cumbrous as well as not quite fair in its practical application, were under consideration at the close of the period.

Famine Relief.

THE SYSTEM OF ACCOUNTS AND AUDIT.

During the period an important change was effected in the functions of the Comptroller and Auditor-General. He was relieved of the purely treasury business formerly devolving on him,—this consisting in matters relating to the requirements of coinage, the management of the Paper Currency system, the movement of funds from one place to another and resource and ways and means operations generally. These duties, as also those previously discharged by the Comptroller and Auditor General in regard to the budget estimates, were transferred to a whole-time officer designated. "Controller of Currency," who entered on his functions on the 1st January 1914. The Comptroller and Auditor-General's functions are accordingly now confined strictly to matters of audit and accounts. His status and pay were materially raised, and in particular, care was taken to ensure his independence and to enhance his authority in the sphere of audit, while the administration has in actual experience already materially benefited by the appointment of a separate officer to deal with the important financial business now entrusted to the Controller of Currency. In particular, the new arrangement proved to be specially advantageous in the financial situation which arose after the outbreak of war.

Financial Establishments.

The department of audit, as a whole, received marked attention during the period under review. Questions of importance relating to the form and scope of the Appropriation Reports of Provincial Accountants General and Comptrollers and that of the Comptroller-General himself (these being the annual records of the work of the Audit Department in regard to public revenue and expenditure) were carefully investigated in correspondence with the Secretary of State and precise instructions were drawn up determining the manner in which these reports should be dealt with by audit officers on the one hand and the executive authorities on the other. To summarise it may be said that the policy of the period was to develop an appreciation of the true spirit of audit and to limit its interference to essential matters rather than to multiply formal restrictions. One of the minor fruits of the special interest in audit and accounts matters which characterised the period was the publication of two useful manuals: (1) a manual of Indian Government audit, and (2) a manual of Indian Government accounts.

Other audit questions.

THE FINANCIAL HISTORY OF THE WAR PERIOD.

When war broke out in August 1914, India entered upon a period of crisis which subjected her financial and economic system to a supreme test. It is true that save for some vivid but happily transient experiences in

Introductory.

the autumn of that year, she remained free from direct external attack. But she was unable to escape the consequences of that economic solidarity which now bound her closely to the outside world. All her recent development had been on lines of diminished isolation. Her currency system connected her with the money markets of London and the world. She relied for internal development largely upon borrowings in London. Her internal financial arrangements and above all her system of credit in many respects followed western models. It was inevitable therefore that India should feel the effects of the war in her trade, her production and throughout her economic system generally; and a special interest attaches to the story of the manner in which the financial organisation of the country, a structure of comparatively recent growth, responded to the calls made upon it. The financial events of the first year of the war are related at length in the speech of the Honourable Finance Member introducing the Financial Statement for 1915-16, the following being merely a brief outline of the more important of them.

The break in
exchange, etc.

It may be mentioned at the outset that India was in a very strong financial position at the commencement of the crisis. Treasury balances were unusually high, the five crore loan floated in July preceding had been a complete success, and the amount of gold held by or for the Government in England and in India taken together stood at £23½ millions.

The first effect of the European war was a threatened break in exchange. Steps were immediately taken to sustain public confidence, the Government at once publishing a formal undertaking to support exchange by all the means in their power, and in pursuance of this object it was announced that sterling bills on London would be offered for sale up to a maximum limit of £1 million a week until further notice. The Government of India also associated with these measures the new privilege of making reverse remittances by means of telegraphic transfers. These measures represented a very considerable advance on previous policy, and they had the desired result of restoring confidence in the banking and commercial public. Simultaneously with the announcement regarding exchange, steps were taken to restrict the dissipation of the gold held in India, and as soon as it was announced that Great Britain was actually at war with Germany the issue of gold to private persons was altogether prohibited.

The next grave difficulty resulting from the outbreak of war was in regard to Savings Banks deposits and currency notes. From the second week of August there was a heavy and excited run by Savings Bank depositors on their funds, and in August and September together there was a net withdrawal of about R6 crores. Thereafter the drain materially slackened, and by the commencement of 1915-16 confidence was so far restored that in the first four months of the year deposits returned at an average rate of 9½ lakhs net a month. At this point a nominal set back occurred as a result of the special facilities offered to small investors to subscribe through the post office to the R4½ crores loan which was floated at the close of July 1915, and independently of this withdrawals recommenced, towards the close of the period, though on a smaller scale than before.

The run on currency notes was of relatively short duration, this being largely due to the special measures adopted by Government to provide increased facilities for conversion.

Revenue and
expenditure
during the war.

In the first year of the war the greater portion of the loss of revenue resulting therefrom fell against the Imperial (Government of India) side, Imperial revenues being more dependent on those resources which are immediately responsive to trade conditions. The surplus of £1½ million anticipated in the Budget Estimates for 1914-15 was converted into a deficit of £2 million. The effect of the war on the Ways and Means position was, however, considerably more serious. The Government were deprived owing to the war of approximately £11 million of the resources on which they had relied for capital outlay, the more important factors contributing to this result being the deficit mentioned above and a deterioration of £7 million under Savings Bank transactions. The situation was met mainly by taking temporary advances of £7 million from the Gold Standard Reserve and by additional sterling borrowing in London.

In framing the estimates for 1915-16 it was assumed that war conditions would continue throughout the year. The estimate framed was for a deficit on the Imperial side amounting to about £2·8 million, while Local Governments were permitted to draw on their balances to the extent of £1 million. The arrangements made to meet the Ways and Means requirements of the year were, briefly, to continue the loan of £7 million from the Gold Standard Reserve and leave it still outstanding on the 31st March 1916, while the Secretary of State similarly agreed to renew £7 million of India bills raised in 1914-15. In addition, it was decided to raise a loan of £3 million in India if this should be found possible. A loan of this amount was actually raised in July 1915 in the shape of a terminable loan issued at par and repayable at the option of the Government of India after five years and repayable definitely after eight years, the rate of interest being 4 per cent. The financial arrangements here mentioned were supplemented by measures of economy of which the most important were the reduction of the railway capital programme from £12 million to £8 million and a minimum outlay on New Delhi. It was then found possible to dispense, for the time being, with resort to additional taxation.

Estimates of
1915-16.

In connection with the rupee loan of 1915-16 above mentioned, an entirely new departure was made with the object of bringing Government into direct contact with the small investor, by the grant of special facilities for tenders in small amounts through the Post Office, the sums so tendered to be accepted in addition to the applications made under the ordinary procedure. This Post Office section of the loan brought in ₹50 lakhs, a success so considerable that it may be anticipated that this method of borrowing will in future form part of the regular loan policy of Government.

As the year 1915-16 advanced, it became evident that the financial arrangements for 1916-17 would probably have to be made on the assumption that war conditions would continue throughout that year also. In addition the monsoon of 1915 had not been altogether satisfactory; while it became increasingly clear that so long as the war lasted it would be necessary for India to rely on her own internal resources, as the Home Government required all available capital for the prosecution of the war. Shortly after the war broke out certain steps had been taken to secure considerable economies in public expenditure. By the close of the period, however, in view of the developments related above, it was recognised that, although the initial difficulties of the crisis had been met in a manner which afforded striking testimony to the financial strength of the country, the time had come to insist on a policy of thorough retrenchment in all directions, and before proceeding to the detailed consideration of the Budget proposals for 1916-17 the Government of India issued a formal warning to Local Governments in this sense, indicating in particular that it would probably be necessary to impose much more stringent budgetary restrictions than had been considered necessary in the case of the year then current.

Position at the
close of the period.

During the first three years of the past quinquennium the Finance Department was under the able guidance of Sir Fleetwood Wilson, G.C.I.E., and has since been represented on the Viceroy's Council by Sir William Meyer, K.C.S.I. These three years were years of plenty with budget surpluses from which considerable grants were made towards education and sanitation, and to meet other urgent requirements, while the later years have been years with deficits requiring the most careful adjustment of our financial burdens. The task of Sir W. Meyer, the Finance Member, in restoring financial equilibrium is an exceedingly difficult one and will take some years to accomplish, but confidence may be expressed that it will be successfully achieved.

As Secretaries to the Finance Department during this period there have been Sir J. Meston, K.C.S.I., Lieutenant Governor of the United Provinces, Sir R. Gillan, K.C.S.I., President of the Railway Board, and Mr. J. B. Brunyate, C.S.I., all of them officers of exceptional merit and ability to whose skilful efforts the success attained by the Finance Department is largely due.

III

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

War Measures,
General.

IN an account of the part played by the Department of Commerce and Industry during the period comprised between November 1910 and March 1916 the measures necessitated by the outbreak of war must figure very largely. Generally speaking, these were devised to meet the temporary needs of the situation as they arose, needs which were often very urgent and led the Government of India into intimate and intricate relations with aspects of trade and industry with which it had in peaceful times but little concern. The ruling principles adopted were of two kinds. In the first place, the Government of India followed, in loyal co-operation, the various steps taken by His Majesty's Government in pursuance of their war policy, while introducing such modifications as the requirements of that policy admitted in order to mitigate its effects, where they pressed heavily on Indian economic interests. In addition to this, all necessary precautions which India's own internal needs required, whether for the supply of military munitions, or for the economic security of the country, were taken.

Customs
restrictions.

The principal measures were as follows. Very early steps were taken to prohibit the export of articles required for military purposes in this country. Later, when the importance of preventing supplies of food and of articles of potential military value from reaching hostile countries was recognised by His Majesty's Government, restrictions were placed on such staple exports as oilseeds, grains, forage, hides, jute, metals and finally on cotton. India had in the past been an important source of raw materials for German and Austrian food and manufactures; and the careful watch kept at the Indian ports on the nature and destination of all shipments doubtless formed a useful second line of economic defence behind the British Navy. Under the pressure of necessity, the Central European powers continually sought fresh channels for the maintenance of their import trade, and more and more stringent precautions were called for by the British War Trade Advisory Committee for the restriction of their supplies. The task of the Customs Department thus tended to become heavier and more complicated. Steps were, however, taken to minimise the inevitable loss and inconvenience to Indian traders by giving as long notice as possible of proposed restrictions, which were introduced with effect from the dates which previous enquiry showed would cause the least interference with existing commitments, while exports were permitted under as liberal a system of licenses as Imperial policy would allow.

Control and
stimulation of
certain exports.

Before the war, India had possessed an important source of supply of saltpetre in the saline tracts of the Gangetic and Punjab valleys. When the German potash mines were no longer open to the United Kingdom, Indian saltpetre became of high importance and every effort was made by the reduction of fees, by the opening of areas hitherto closed to exploitation and in other ways to stimulate its production and export through the channels of private trade. The export of saltpetre to other countries was for some months entirely forbidden, and over 1,000 tons a month of refined saltpetre were made available for British requirements.

India possesses in the Tavoy and Mergui districts of Burma one of the richest fields of tungsten minerals in the world. Hitherto she had contributed about 1,800 tons towards the world's demand of over 9,000 tons. The need for this metal, which is in especial demand as an alloy of high speed steel for machine tools, became accentuated by the increasing scale of military operations. The Government of India did all in its power to increase the output of wolfram, the ore of tungsten found in Burma, by assisting the mine owners to obtain labour, and improving the local communications, while at the same time it assumed a strict control over the management of the various concessions, to ensure the efficient working of the mines and the speedy transport of the mineral to the United Kingdom.

But the most important field of trading activity of which the Government of India found it necessary to assume control was the export of wheat. In November 1914, the Punjab Government drew special attention to a serious

rise in the price of wheat, which was then practically at famine rates. This position was attributed at the time to the disturbing effects of the war on world's prices, accentuated by the failure of the Australian harvest and the withdrawal of the Russian crops from the market, by the closing of the Dardanelles. The previous harvest in India had been inferior, stocks were low and the operations of speculators contributed to the rise in prices. The situation was fully discussed with representatives of the Local Governments of the Punjab, the United Provinces and Delhi, and on the 30th November, the Viceroy ordered the promulgation of an Ordinance enabling the Government to take possession, on payment of compensation, of commercial stocks unreasonably withheld from the market. At the same time, the consent of the Secretary of State was obtained to the restriction of exports of wheat and wheat flour to a limit of 100,000 tons for the period ending with 31st March. This total was allotted among the various exporting firms at the different ports in proportion to their previous rate of export. These measures, coupled with the abundant promise of harvest which the season's crop afforded, had a considerable effect in retarding, though they did not wholly check, the rise in price.

The responsibility of the Indian Government became more serious, however, when it was known that the United Kingdom was relying on the Indian supply of wheat to tide them over the months of spring and early summer. The problem presented was thus twofold. In the interests of the many millions of Indian consumers, among whom the pressure of high prices had already led in some instances to serious outbreaks of disorder, prices had to be reduced: while the surplus that undoubtedly existed had to be made available for the consumer in England. After prolonged discussions, a scheme was evolved to which the approval of the Secretary of State was secured. The principal exporting firms were engaged as Government agents to purchase wheat on commission under control of Government officers and ship it to the United Kingdom in freight provided by the Secretary of State. On arrival in London, it was sold by a Committee of the Indian wheat firms, in accordance with the understanding arrived at between the Government of India and His Majesty's Government. The British Treasury agreed to meet any nett loss up to 31st March 1916, while any nett profit was to be taken by the Indian Government. The scheme as announced was well received by the Indian public and generally speaking by the European mercantile classes as well. The prices at which Government agreed to buy for export were calculated *f.o.b.* Karachi, Bombay and Calcutta, and were given the widest publicity. Starting with a price of Rs. 5-12-0 per maund, *f.o.b.* Karachi and Bombay, reductions were effected to Rs. 5-8-0 on April 25th and to Rs. 5-2-9 from 1st May. From 25th April the price *f.o.b.* Calcutta was fixed at Rs. 5-5-0 per maund and was reduced to Rs. 4-15-9 on 1st May. On and from the 8th May, a further reduction of Rs. 0-4-0 was effected at all three ports and on the 11th and again on the 18th June further reductions of Rs. 0-2-0 were effected at Karachi, thus lowering the price to Rs. 4-10-9 a maund; and this rate, although ineffective since the first week of August 1915 in securing wheat, has not since been raised. As a result of the scheme, prices dropped considerably throughout the period from a wholesale average of Rs. 5-5-9 per maund in March to Rs. 4-11-3 and Rs. 4-4-0 in April and May. There was little variation in the price until August, when it rose to Rs. 4-11-9 and stood at Rs. 4-12-0 in October. With the approval of the Secretary of State an announcement was made on the 19th of November that the existing prohibition of private exports would be continued until further orders. The result of this great socialistic experiment, as it was called by several English newspapers, was thus a success, limited only by the extent to which the harvest fell short of expectations owing to unseasonable weather and by the somewhat disappointing results of the selling policy adopted by the Indian Wheat Firms Committee. But by the close of the season's operations a profit of about £130,000 had been assured, while Indian prices had been reduced, and invaluable help had been afforded to the English markets.

Another important trade over which the Government of India were called Jute.
on to exercise a certain degree of control in the interests of the munitions requirements of the United Kingdom, was the manufacture of jute goods,

This industry, which is concentrated in and round Calcutta, is the leading European manufacturing interest in Bengal, and the welfare of the jute growers of that Province, a most important element in the rural economy of the eastern districts especially, is closely bound up with it. They had suffered serious losses from the fall in the price of the raw material, consequent on the restrictions on the export of jute goods caused by the insecurity of navigation and the general unsettlement of trade in the earlier months of the war. But the trench fighting on the eastern and western fronts of the European battlefield soon caused a very great demand for sandbags, with a rise in the price of manufactured jute generally, and in order to diminish the effect of this rise the British Government, after arranging with the Allied Governments to undertake the purchase of jute goods for the common account, called on the Government of India for their help in effecting an agreement with the mills. This was successfully accomplished, thanks in a large degree to the good-will of the millowners, and an agreement extending in the first instance over three months, was made for the supply of fifty millions of war bags a month, at a rate which showed a saving of over a million sterling a year on previous prices.

Industrial policy
in War and Peace.

Efforts were made at an early stage of the war to capture for Indian manufacturers the openings left by the absence of German and Austrian competitors and to create fresh demands for Indian exports left without a market by the closing of German and Austrian ports. Help was undoubtedly afforded in one or two instances; a fresh demand was created for a portion of the ground-nut harvest of Madras: and the information published in a series of bulletins was undoubtedly useful to Indian as well as to English traders. A collection of samples of German and Austrian manufactured goods and of competing Indian products was shown in the leading trade centres of India, and was the means in many cases of bringing increased custom to small and struggling Indian industries. The popular desire for an industrial policy received a great stimulus from the economic conditions created by the war, but the technical and financial resources of India were not sufficient to enable her to take advantage of these conditions. The question of the industrial deficiencies of India and of what steps Government might take in the matter, had already attracted the Viceroy's attention, and in his speech which closed the Council session of 1914-15. His Excellency explained in the following words the policy which his Government proposed to adopt:—"My Government have been giving such assistance as they can to Indian industries in its endeavours to take advantage of the opportunity for expansion afforded by the cessation of imports from Germany and Austria and other continental countries affected by the war. I should like to add that the whole question of promotion of industrial development in India is one which has been and is receiving the most careful consideration of myself and my Government, and I am glad to find from the prominent place which it has taken in the debates of my Council this session, that it is also occupying minds of public men in India. The present time, when commerce and finance are naturally disturbed by a great war, when men's minds can hardly be expected to look on economic problems from their normal angle, is not in my judgment a suitable moment for taking special action or for initiating special inquiries as to how best this end may be achieved. But it is a question the importance of which is very present in my thoughts, and it is one which I shall hope to see taken up vigorously and effectively as soon as normal conditions have supervened". In pursuance of this policy, the general attitude of the Indian Government towards the question of State aid to industries was examined: and after discussion in the Executive Council, a despatch was sent to the Secretary of State, asking for the appointment, after the war, of a strong Committee to consider the whole question, unfettered by the consideration of certain restrictions which had been imposed by Lord Morley on direct Government intervention in the pioneering of industries.

Effect of war on
Merchant Shipping.

The effects of the war and of war measures on merchant shipping deserve mention. The outbreak of the war found a number of German and Austrian vessels in Indian ports. These, 15 in number, belonging chiefly to the Hansa, Hamburg-America and Austrian-Lloyd lines, were seized and detained permanently or, in one case, condemned as prize, by the Courts. It was recognised at an early date that the withdrawal of these ships from trade in Indian

waters would have a serious effect on the export trade of the country. The Government of India, therefore, decided that all these vessels, with the exception of those required for military or naval duties, should be employed by Government to carry ordinary mercantile cargoes. India was, it is understood, the first country to adopt this procedure, which was afterwards generally followed by the Admiralty and the Colonial Governments.

The despatch of large Indian forces to Europe necessitated the assumption of special powers in order to facilitate the requisition of British merchant vessels to act as transports and supply ships. The power of impressment was conferred on certain officers of the Royal Indian Marine under the provisions of Ordinance II of 1914. Large numbers of ships were requisitioned from time to time during the war, as it became necessary to transport various expeditions to France, Egypt, the Persian Gulf and the Dardanelles, and to move horses from Australia. A considerable number of these had to be retained for long periods to convey supplies to the various overseas forces. Similar action had to be taken on an even larger scale in Europe and the withdrawal of so many ships from commercial employment, together with the destruction of others by German commerce raiders early in the war, one of which, the "Emden", caused some loss in Indian waters, and still greater alarm, led to a considerable rise in freights. The negotiations for the fixation of a rate of hire for ships requisitioned in India were full of difficulty, especially as the Admiralty were not able to come to a complete decision on rates of hire for the United Kingdom for many months. An agreement was, however, reached in respect of rates for the year 1914, which was maintained also during the following year, and a Committee was appointed and submitted its report on the various outstanding points in regard to third party claims and fitting out charges.

The welcome which the liberal and unsuspicious policy of England had always extended to foreign merchants in her dependencies had led to large settlements of German and Austrian traders in the ports and to a less extent in upcountry trading centres. On the outbreak of war, the Government of India recognised that it was not possible to pursue with regard to these interests the same policy as was adopted in England. India, with her enormous and often scarcely civilised population, liable to be swayed by sudden rumours, and containing already a few dangerous elements of hostility to the continuance of British rule, offered a tempting field for German intrigue, of which there is full evidence that ample advantage would have been taken but for the countervailing measures of Government. Nowhere could this hostile influence have been so effectively exerted, or so readily concealed, as in the trade relations which the German and Austrian importing houses had created with the Indian merchants and clerks of Calcutta and Bombay. The idea of deliberately closing down hostile trade in order that British and Indian mercantile interests might benefit formed no part of the initial policy of the Government of India, although it is impossible at this stage to say what measures may not hereafter be forced on India in common with other allied countries and dependencies. Power was taken by Ordinance III of 1914 (as amended by Ordinances VII and VIII) to control the carrying on of business by hostile foreigners in British India, and in the exercise of that power, it was ordered that no hostile foreigner or firm should engage in trade in India without a license granted by the Government, and only to the extent permitted by the terms of the license. In pursuance of this order, about 243 businesses have been dealt with, of which 50 have been allowed to trade without any restrictions; 79 are trading under the control of Government officers appointed under the designation of Controllers of Hostile Firms, while 114 have been wound up or closed down. The balance of the assets of these firms, remaining after the discharge (as far as practicable in the circumstances) of their liabilities, has been provisionally deposited in the Government treasuries. Such were the principal war measures undertaken by the Government of India in the Department of Commerce and Industry. We now pass to a consideration of the policy pursued during the previous four and a half years of peace, which were, however, not free from political troubles often of an acute nature.

The relations between Indians emigrating as indentured and free labourers, Foreign or as ordinary emigrants to other countries, especially to British Colonies, and Emigration.

the Governments and people of those countries, have given rise to an increasing degree of popular feeling in India. The question of Indian emigration was most acute in South Africa. In the years 1911 and 1912, the Union Government attempted to pass a law to regulate immigration into South Africa, but were unsuccessful each year on account of the opposition with which the Bills met both from Indians and South Africans. The Bills were also objected to by the Government of India especially in regard to inter-provincial emigration, and the rights of persons domiciled in the Union. In the following year the Immigrants Regulation Act was passed, but although it provided for some of the matters on which the Government of India and the Secretary of State had previously laid stress, it was not acceptable to Indians. On failing to arrive at a satisfactory settlement with the Union Government, the Indians revived what is known as the "passive resistance" movement on the grounds that the Government had violated the agreement concluded in 1911 by introducing the racial bar in regard to admission into the Orange Free State, by curtailing the right of South African born Indians to enter the Cape and by preventing the acquisition of domiciliary rights by ex-indentured Indians; that Indian Marriages were not recognised as legal; and that the promise to abolish the £3 tax in Natal had not been kept. The situation was aggravated by strikes and riots among Indian labourers, and complaints received in India of the treatment of passive resisters by the magistrates and of the rough handling of strikers and rioters by the police roused intense feeling. The Viceroy in a speech delivered in Madras championed warmly the cause of the Indians, and pressed strongly for an independent enquiry into the allegations which had reached this country. The Union Government subsequently appointed a Commission of Enquiry, but objection was raised to its composition by the Indians in South Africa. Failing to secure an alteration in the constitution of the Commission, His Excellency with the consent of the Union Government, deputed Sir Benjamin Robertson to South Africa to watch the proceedings of the Commission on their behalf and to make a statement before it in regard to Indian grievances. This step had very happy results, as Sir Benjamin Robertson was able, by personal discussion, to contribute largely to the generally satisfactory solution of the problem which was embodied in the report issued by the Commission. Their recommendations were accepted by the Union Government, and effect was given to them by the passing of the Indians Relief Act of 1914. The Act provides, among other matters, for the admission of one wife per man, the validation by registration of marriages contracted according to polygamous rites which in fact are monogamous, the abolition of the £3 tax and the yearly passes or licenses which ex-indentured Indians were previously required to take out. The Union Government also gave the assurance that the recommendations of the Commission relating to the administration of the Immigrants Regulation Act which are not covered by the Indians Relief Act would be given effect to, that existing plural wives and their children, if their numbers were not very great, would be allowed to join their husbands or parents, and that South African born Indians would be permitted, as before, to enter the Cape without any restriction, so long as the movement did not assume greater dimensions than in the past. They further announced that, in the case of the Indians specially admitted, no declaration would be required in regard to the Orange Free State, and that the existing laws would be administered in a just manner and with due regard to vested interests. The Relief Act and the assurances given by the Colonial Government closed the Indian passive resistance struggle. Some dissatisfaction persists, however, among the South African Muhammadans with the solution arrived at in regard to Indian marriages and the status of children, but the Government of India have been unable to support their claim for a more complete recognition of their religious customs by the laws of the Union.

The general policy of the Government of India until the year 1914 had been to assert the principle of free emigration between all parts of the Empire, and they had consistently declined to take any steps towards restricting the movements of free Indian emigrants from this country. This principle had, however, in the face of strong colonial feeling, proved ineffective; and Lord Hardinge decided that the only course which was likely to conciliate Indian public opinion and to secure a lasting settlement with the colonies was a policy

of reciprocity, which could be made effective without direct retaliation and would not raise questions of the personal status of Indians in the colonies. This policy was announced by His Excellency at a meeting of the Legislative Council in September 1914; but no steps could be taken to make it effective until Indian public opinion had had time to consider and support it.

While strong feeling in India was aroused by the behaviour of the colonies towards free Indian emigrants, it was felt perhaps even more strongly by educated Indians that the existence of indentured emigration from India to the tropical colonies was a great obstacle to a satisfactory settlement of this question. The conditions under which indentured labour was maintained were, it was thought, most undesirable. Prominent among these were the disproportion of the sexes of labourers which rendered family life impossible in most cases and also the penal provisions of the labour laws and the method of their enforcement. These causes, it was claimed, were largely accountable for the high suicide rate which was a disquieting feature in the mortality statistics of Indian indentured labour. In 1912 the Government of India appointed Mr. McNeill of the Indian Civil Service and Mr. Chimmanlal, an Indian gentleman, on a special mission to visit the Colonies, where indentured emigration from India was in force, and to report upon the working of the system. These gentlemen did not condemn the system as a whole, but put forward various palliative proposals to meet certain of the evils arising out of it. It was clear, however, from their Report that the undesirable factors which have already been mentioned, really existed and to a very serious degree, and Lord Hardinge was convinced that the time was fully ripe for urging upon His Majesty's Government the discontinuance of emigration under such conditions. He felt that the case was not one which could be met by palliative measures, but that the system itself was at fault and that a stigma would be permanently attached to the Government of India if they acquiesced in the continuance of such a state of things. After a full consideration of the case, the Government of India unanimously agreed that there was no justification for maintaining any longer the system of indentured labour, and addressed the Secretary of State, pressing for its abolition at the earliest opportunity, and for the substitution of a labour system which would allow full liberty of choice to the labourer unbound by any form of penal contract.

The aim of the Government of India in respect of inland emigration to Assam had for some years been to secure the abolition of penal indenture under Act VI of 1901 and of recruitment by contractors, a system which had been found to be fertile in abuses. Various causes had led to delays, but with effect from 1st July 1915 the penal provisions of the Act were withdrawn and recruitment by contractors abolished. It is no longer necessary for a labourer to execute labour contracts and in cases where such contracts are waived, special facilities in regard to recruitment are offered to *sardars* working under local agents or approved associations. The tea industry has been fully conscious of the abuses which had existed and anxious for their removal; and its leaders themselves proposed the establishment of a Board for the supervision of recruiting agencies, financed by a levy on the employers in proportion to the labour recruited by them. The necessary legislation for the institution of the Board was undertaken. The functions of this Board, which is known as the Assam Labour Board, are to supervise recruitment without participating in it, to detect and report abuses, and to suggest remedies for them to the local Governments.

The policy of the Government of India in respect of excise was described in the despatch which they addressed to the Secretary of State on the 26th February 1914. "We merely attempt by raising retail prices to minimise temptation to those who do not drink, and to discourage excess among those who do. We are chiefly concerned with the reduction of actual consumption, and this can only be effected when illicit supplies are suppressed by any such measures as are reasonable and practical". The success already attained by Government in giving effect to this policy was indicated by a reference to statistics accompanying the despatch. The figures showed that, in spite of factors operating actively towards increased consumption, the rate of increase had not exceeded 5 per cent since 1905 in the case of country spirits; the consumption of opium had remained practically

stationary; and that of hemp drugs had diminished by over 8 per cent. Stated in economic language, the rate of duty in each province had been pressed above the point of diminishing returns to a level at which it operated as an effective discouragement to consumption without at the same time encouraging illicit distillation beyond the control of the excise staff. In giving effect to these principles, steps have been taken to strengthen the preventive establishments in all provinces where a strong excise policy demanded this course. Provinces possessing Legislative Councils have also been encouraged to revise their excise legislation and to bring it into accord with present day conditions; special powers have been taken in particular to combat the dangers of the cocaine traffic—dangers which have during recent years become only too real. The same principles apply generally to the control exercised over the consumption of opium and hemp drugs.

Insurance and
Companies Law.

In the first year of the period under review the administration was engaged with several measures of commercial legislation of first rate importance. The first measure to be passed was an act for the better control of Life Insurance Companies in India. Discussion showed that it would be necessary to provide by a separate, and, inasmuch as it would be impossible in this to follow English legislation, by a largely experimental measure, for the control of companies, which were nominally described as Life Assurance Companies but which in reality were nothing more than Friendly Societies. Two bills were accordingly proposed to the Secretary of State in November 1910. The English Act of 1909 was closely followed in the Life Assurance Companies Bill, which was restricted in its application to Life Assurance only, as no other form of insurance had any considerable operation in India. Two new provisions were specially introduced to suit Indian conditions, and to protect a comparatively helpless and uninstructed public. Power was taken for Government on its own initiative to direct the winding up of companies and, partly as a preliminary to such action, to inspect a company's books if there were reasons to believe that its business was unsound. This bill was passed into law on 18th March 1912, and in connection with its provisions, a Government Actuary has been specially appointed. The supplementary bill for the regulation of Provident Insurance Societies was similarly restricted to companies undertaking insurance on births, marriages or deaths, such societies being differentiated in the last case from Life Assurance Societies by the maximum limit placed by societies on individual sums assured; the two measures taken together thus covered the whole field of Life Assurance as well as insurance against marriages and births. It passed into law on 13th March 1912, and is administered by Local Governments, through the Registrars, who also have the power of inspecting books and of directing the winding up of insolvent companies. It makes full provision for the essential publicity of management, and checks gambling insurance by requiring insurable interest, but does not, like the Life Assurance Act, demand a preliminary deposit from the companies to which it applies. The effect of this legislation has been beneficial. A few unsound societies have, it is true, disappeared: but in no case has stringent action been taken against institutions working on honest lines.

The Government Actuary while fulfilling his statutory duties has also been in a position to help many societies with skilled advice. The general result has been more honest and efficient working and a greater appreciation by the societies of the need of technical assistance in the complicated business of Life Assurance.

The Indian Companies Bill was introduced in 1912 as the result of the consolidation in 1909 of the English law with which it closely corresponded, this correspondence being throughout a general feature in the policy of Indian commercial legislation, in the interests of investors in both countries. In this bill also, although a minimum of State interference was accepted as an ideal, it was necessary to provide for Government initiative in the inspection of a company's affairs, while as in the case of Insurance Companies special provision had to be made for securing a competent audit. The bill passed into law on 27th March 1913.

Posts and Telegraphs.

The rapid development in inland traffic both in posts and telegraphs has been facilitated by a measure of the greatest administrative importance, the

amalgamation, now successfully concluded, of the Departments of Posts and Telegraphs. The first steps towards amalgamation were taken by the Government of India in 1912, in placing the two departments under the control of one Director General, and later in introducing an experimental scheme of amalgamation in the Bombay and Central Circles. The experiment was fully successful and the scheme was extended throughout British India with effect from April 1911. By the entire separation of the Telegraph Engineering from the Telegraph Traffic work, the new system in India has been brought into line with that of the United Kingdom and of other countries where Engineering and Traffic Officers are, as far as possible, employed solely on duties for which they are recruited and specially trained. The scheme adequately protected the interests of officers of both Departments, it offered a more congenial range of duties to the Telegraph Officers especially, while affording to competent subordinates a prospect of promotion to well paid posts; and by the redistribution of duties and in particular by the abolition of dual control in the combined offices it gave an improved service to the public with, nevertheless, a considerable ultimate saving in annual expenditure.

The normal progress in the provision of facilities to the public has been more than maintained. Since 1910, 516 new post offices and 552 new telegraph offices have been opened with an increase of 12 per cent. in the mileage of telegraph line. There has been an immense increase of traffic; in five years nearly 10 per cent. more letters were delivered, the annual total rising to nearly one thousand million letters, while other heads showed even larger expansion though on much smaller totals, there being increases of 30 per cent. in newspapers, 18 per cent. in money orders, and 23 per cent. in private inland telegrams. Foreign telegraph traffic did not however show a similar rate of growth, though considerable improvements in the service were introduced. On 1st May 1914, the telegraph tariff between India and the United Kingdom was reduced from 1s. 8d. to 1s. 4d. a word and to half that rate in the case of deferred telegrams in plain language. This system of deferred foreign telegrams was introduced on 1st January 1912 and has been much appreciated by the public. Further telegraphic facilities were afforded by the week-end cable system introduced in May 1914, but this arrangement had to be suspended on the outbreak of war, except for soldiers, sailors and nurses serving in certain countries.

Particular attention has been given during this period to the development of wireless telegraphy, both in India and in the Persian Gulf. High power stations were established at Bombay, Karachi, Quetta, Peshawar, Lahore, Nagpur, Secunderabad, Madras and Rangoon. The wireless stations in the Bay of Bengal were remodelled and small power stations were established in Calcutta and its vicinity. Sanction was given before the outbreak of the war to the establishment of a wireless system in connection with the Arms traffic in the Persian Gulf.

The quinquennium, which began with the year 1910-11, saw a considerable expansion of the world's trade, and commercial progress in India was equally marked. During Lord Hardinge's Viceroyalty the total value of the overseas trade of India, excluding Treasure and Government Stores, increased steadily from 1910-11, in which year the value of imports was £86 million sterling and exports £140 million sterling, to 1913-14, when imports were valued at £122 million sterling and exports at £166 million sterling, the increases being 42 per cent. and 19 per cent. respectively. As a result of the war, overseas trade fell in 1914-15 to £92 million sterling imports, and £121 million sterling exports. There have been no marked variations in the nature of the imports and exports. Sixty-nine per cent. of the total imports in 1910-11, 70 per cent. in 1913-14 and 74 per cent. in 1914-15, came from the British Empire, the corresponding figures for exports to the British Empire being 41, 38 and 48. The customs revenue rose from £6,268,786 in 1910-11 to £7,104,780 in 1913-14; but in 1914-15 it fell to £5,927,454.

A separate Directorate of Statistics was created, with effect from the 1st of April 1914, to deal with purely statistical work, while the Director General continued to handle all questions relating more particularly to commercial intelligence. It had at the same time been recognised, however, that a further re-organisation of the latter charge was necessary in view of its importance

Commerce and
Trade.

both as a means for supplying the Government of India and the commercial public with information and as a part of the active industrial policy contemplated by the Government which is described elsewhere in this chapter. A scheme was formulated which contemplated an extension, in the more important Indian trade centres, of the staff subordinate to the Director General. It was decided, however, that in view of the financial stringency arising in consequence of the war, no final steps should be taken in the matter until the conclusion of hostilities.

With regard to port administration, an extensive scheme of dock construction at Bombay was completed in 1914, at a cost of over 6 crores of rupees. The Government of Madras have undertaken a scheme for improving the Madras Harbour at a cost of Rs. 50 lakhs. The Government of Bengal appointed a Committee to consider the best means of increasing the facilities of the port of Calcutta, and, as a result, a comprehensive programme of construction estimated to cost over 4 crores has been sanctioned. The question of creating a deep-water harbour at Vizagapatam is also under consideration; it is hoped by this measure to tap productive areas in the Central Provinces which have hitherto suffered from the length of their land communication with Calcutta, Madras or Bombay, and which would be stimulated by the comparative proximity of a harbour at Vizagapatam. The condition of Indian industries called for close examination as a result of the war, and the policy of the Government of India in regard to them has been explained in the paragraphs relating to special war measures in this country. It was decided in July 1913 that the existing state of confusion of weights and measures in India required careful examination in the interests of internal trade with a view to ascertain whether standardisation was possible. A Committee was appointed for the purpose and its report has been referred to Local Governments and Administrations for their views.

Sir W. Clark, K.C.S.I., has throughout been the Member of Council in charge of the Department of Commerce and Industry, except for a period of 6 months from April to October 1914, when he was absent on leave and Sir Robert Gillan, K.C.S.I., subsequently President of the Railway Board, officiated as Member. The Department has had the advantage of the very able services of Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, Mr. Enthoven, C.I.E., and Mr. Low, C.I.E., as Secretaries, the latter being the present occupant of the post. Since the commencement of the war the work of the Department has been excessively arduous and complicated, owing to the new and varied questions that have arisen and for the solution of which in many cases no precedent could be found, but Sir W. Clark and Mr. Low have successfully grappled with it to the satisfaction of the commercial community in India, and in entire accord with the Imperial issues that have been at stake.

RAILWAY DEPARTMENT.

IV

IN the administration of the Railway Department no sweeping change, such as the creation of the Railway Board under Lord Curzon, was found to be necessary during the period under review. The administrative system indeed had but recently been subjected to a thorough revision, and the need for the time being was not for general re-organisation but to improve the machinery in detail and by a better adaptation of parts to secure its smoother working.

During the past five and a half years efforts have been continuously made to bring about closer co-operation between the Government of India and Railway Companies and between the Government of India and the India Office in connection with the administration of Indian Railways. A conference between the members of the Railway Board and the Chairmen and Managing Directors of the principal Indian Railway Companies was held in Calcutta early in 1912 to discuss certain outstanding questions of importance. This conference was presided over by Lord Inchcape, and as the result of the discussions which took place, an understanding was come to on all points at issue. The conference, moreover, led directly to the general adoption of the official financial year in place of the calendar year by Indian Railway Companies for purposes of their accounts—a considerable administrative convenience. During the cold weather of 1913-14, Mr. (now Sir) Lionel Abrahams of the India Office visited India. This visit afforded an opportunity for an exchange of views on matters connected with Indian railway policy, and led to the settlement of various questions outstanding between the Government of India and the Secretary of State. A suggestion was also made that the Boards of Directors of the various railway companies should be asked to depute, periodically, one of their number to India, to investigate matters connected with the companies' interests and to facilitate the disposal of business by personal discussion. His Majesty's Secretary of State has decided that he can only consider proposals made by the Boards themselves regarding such deputations, but the suggestion has already borne fruit as several Directors have visited India since the question was raised.

In the constitution of the Railway Board, which is the body primarily responsible for the efficiency and success of railway working in India, important changes have been made. According to its original plan the Board was to be composed of officers solely with railway experience. For the future it has been decided that railway experience should be a necessary qualification in respect of two only of the three members, and a way has thus been opened for the association with technical knowledge of the financial or commercial element which is frequently of importance in railway working. The methods of business of the Board and the relations between the President and his colleagues have also been examined, and improvements effected which secure that full use is made of the experience represented on the Board, and that due weight is given to the opinion of all its members. Prior to Lord Hardinge's assumption of office the last great change in the administrative system of Indian Railways was effected in 1908. Before that time a very detailed control in all matters of expenditure and administration was exercised over Railway Administrations, whether of State or Company-worked lines, by officers called Consulting Engineers to Government who worked in close collaboration with Local Governments. This system, however, worked with much friction and without efficiency and it was found necessary to give railway administrations much larger powers; to restrict the powers of the officers directly representative of Government to duties necessary to ensure the safety of the public; and to place other railway questions definitely under a central body, namely, the Railway Board. During the period under review this fundamental change of system has been put to the test, and undoubtedly has proved itself to be sound, both in increasing the sense of responsibility of railway administrations and in improving the relations between them and the Railway Board. The only defect that has been noticed is that at first there was unquestionably a tendency to neglect to consult Local Governments and Administrations in matters in which provincial interests were affected. This fault was not inherent in the system

It will be seen that notwithstanding the comparatively small amounts available for the construction of new railways from Imperial sources, the increase in activity of other agencies was such as to render the total addition to mileage greater than that during any other Viceroyalty except that of Lord Curzon.

Indigenous Industry
and Railways.

Special endeavours have been made to increase the use of indigenous products and the local manufacture of railway materials and to improve the organisation of the Railway Department in connection with the purchase and inspection of such materials. A Mining Engineer's Department was constituted under the Railway Board to assist in the purchase of coal and to undertake its inspection. Though originally entrusted with this work on behalf of State-worked Railways only, the success attending this step has been so great that nearly all the Main Line Railway Companies and many private companies unconnected with railways, have taken advantage of the new organisation. Again, in order to encourage the Tata Iron and Steel Company to construct iron and steel works at Kalimati, the Railway Department undertook to purchase annually for State-worked Railways 20,000 tons of rails, and in order to provide for the adequate inspection of the manufacturing processes of the finished product, a Metallurgical Inspector was appointed with a suitable staff and fully equipped laboratory at the Company's works. Here again the work done by the Inspector has rapidly expanded and inspection is undertaken on behalf of railway companies, Government Departments, Port Trusts, Municipalities and private individuals, while the facilities offered for adequate inspection at small cost have undoubtedly been of great assistance to the Steel Company as well as to the public at large. To undertake the inspection of various other local manufactures, special Inspectors of Manufactures have been appointed by the Railway Board in Calcutta and Bombay. In the former city where the more important of the manufactures in which railways are interested are undertaken, a fully equipped test-house and laboratory has been constructed and a physicist and a chemist assist the Inspector. The services of the Inspector have been made available to the public for the payment of a small fee and have been taken advantage of to a large and rapidly increasing extent. Another direction in which the increased use of indigenous material has been brought about is in connection with the supply of sleepers for Indian railways. Improved methods of preservation have rendered it possible to utilise indigenous timber formerly regarded as worthless for this purpose, and co-operation between the Railway and Forest Departments have led to the extensive use of sleepers preserved by these processes.

The Indian Public
and Railways.

A very noticeable change in the attitude of the Indian public towards railway administration has marked the period in question. While formerly but little interest was taken in any general question of railway policy, problems connected with the future development and policy of Indian railways are now actively discussed both in the press and in the Imperial and Provincial Legislative Councils. Such questions as the increased employment of Indians, the provision of separate accommodation for different castes; the standard of accommodation provided for 3rd class railway passengers, naturally occupy a prominent place in the public attention, and a vernacular newspaper rarely issues without a reference to one or other of these matters. The question which has aroused the greatest interest and controversy is, however, that of the relative advantages of State and Company management. The advantage of securing the entire profit from Indian railways to the State and of working through direct State agency has in the last two or three years been widely debated. As a result of discussion in the Imperial Legislative Council a resolution was adopted advocating a full enquiry into the relative advantages of the two systems of management. Prior to this discussion the Railway Board had already been instructed to undertake a preliminary examination of the matter, especially in view of the fact that the contract with the East Indian Railway Company is shortly to determine.

State and
Company
management.

Railways and the
War.

Since the outbreak of war in August 1914, while there has been some tendency for the ordinary business of railways to decline, much special work has been undertaken by railways, directly or indirectly, connected with the war. In September and October 1914 practically all the Royal Engineer Officers

employed on Indian Railways reverted to military duty, while from time to time a large number of civilian officers were permitted to join the Indian Army Reserve or other branches of His Majesty's service. Notwithstanding a general recall of officers from leave, railways have in many cases been somewhat short-handed in consequence. It is all the more gratifying, therefore, to be able to record that all railway work in connection with the concentration of troops for the despatch of Expeditionary Forces overseas was successfully undertaken to the entire satisfaction of His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, while in the early stages of the war very material help was afforded by railways to the military authorities in the fitting up of transports, the construction of ambulance and armoured trains and in various other directions. Since August 1915 the Railway Board have been in charge of the manufacture of munitions of war in other than ordnance factories. It is too early to estimate the full measure of assistance which railway and private workshops will be able to afford in the manufacture of shell-bodies. It may safely be stated, however, that various difficulties originally encountered have been successfully overcome and that it has been proved possible to manufacture shell-bodies from Indian iron ore. The loyal co-operation accorded to the Railway Board by Railway Administrations, Ruling Chiefs and private firms has been an important factor in securing this measure of success.

Throughout the period under review Sir William Clark, K.C.S.I., C.M.G., ^{Parsonnel.} was the Hon'ble Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of the Railway Department, Mr. Gillan, C.S.I., I.C.S., officiating from April to October 1914.

The Railway Board has been fortunate in its Presidents. Sir T. R. Wynne, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., occupied this position from November 1910 till May 1914, when he was succeeded by Sir H. P. Burt, K.C.I.E., who retained office until April 1915, when he was succeeded by Sir R. Gillan, K.C.S.I., who is now President of the Board. Much of the success of the Railway policy during the past five years is due to the technical knowledge, energy and administrative ability of the Presidents who have controlled the policy of the Board, and to the loyal co-operation of the members of the Board who have worked with them.

V DEPARTMENT OF REVENUE AND AGRICULTURE.

FAMINE RELIEF.

Famine and
Scarcity.

THE past five and a half years have been fortunately free from any really serious or wide-spread famine. The most serious crop failure which occurred during the period under review was that of 1913-14 in the United Provinces which was due to the irregular distribution and premature cessation of the monsoon of 1913. The area of the tract in which famine conditions actually prevailed amounted to 7,675 square miles and its population to 1·8 millions. The maximum number on relief of all kinds in this tract was 157,060. The area which never passed out of the period of observation and test was 13,321 square miles with a population of 5·7 millions. The maximum number on test works and gratuitous relief in this tract was 67,105. The total number on relief of all kinds reached a maximum of 219,407 at the end of May. The closing down of relief operations commenced about the middle of July and was completed at the end of October. Tracts in Central India, Rajputana, the Central Provinces and Bombay were also affected by the partial failure and early cessation of the monsoon of 1913, but the only area in which famine conditions were definitely established was the Alampur Pargana of the Indore State.

Certain tracts in the Bombay Presidency were also visited by famine in 1911-12 and 1912-13. The crop failure of 1911-12 affected the northern part of Gujarat and the plains of the Deccan and Karnatak. The area of the distressed tract was 28,072 square miles with a population of 4·87 millions. The maximum number on relief works and in receipt of gratuitous relief was 108,888 in April 1912. The distress in 1912-13 was on a very small scale.

Famine Codes.

In 1913 the adoption in the Central Provinces on a limited scale of a system which provides for the abolition of test works and the substitution for them of an expansion of ordinary works on which full wages will be earned was sanctioned on the understanding that it will be treated as an alternative and not as a substitute for the system of test works.

General features.

Recent famines have revealed a stronger power of resistance on the part of the people which appears to be due to something more than merely temporary causes and has, amongst other ways, shown itself in an increasing willingness on the part of the labouring classes to migrate to centres where employment is available. In consequence, the most striking feature of the famine operations of the last five years has been the secondary place into which the system of test and relief works has tended to fall, and the extent to which it has been possible to meet the situation by the expansion of ordinary public works on contract terms, the grant of gratuitous relief on a more liberal scale than was formerly the case and the extensive distribution of agricultural loans. Increasing use has also been made of concessions for the carriage to affected tracts of fodder by rail at reduced rates.

AGRICULTURE.

Imperial
Department of
Agriculture.

The post of Inspector-General of Agriculture in India was abolished as a separate appointment from April 1st, 1912, the duties attached to it as well as the control of the Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory at Muktesar devolving on the Director of the Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa, who was given the additional designation of Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India.

Agricultural
development.

There has been a very marked expansion in the activities both of the Imperial and Provincial Departments of Agriculture during the period under review. The number of experts now employed on research and district work in the provinces is 68 as against 41 in 1910.

Much of the attention both of the Imperial and Provincial Departments of Agriculture has been devoted to questions relating to the improvement of the staple crops of India, but only a few of the outstanding achievements can

be mentioned. A type of wheat known as Pusa No. 12 suited to a variety of soil conditions and giving an increased outturn has been introduced into large areas in Northern India especially in the United Provinces. The efforts which have been made to resuscitate the cultivation of the indigo plant have already met with considerable success and the appointment of a chemist to investigate the possibility of manufacturing standardized form of indigo paste which shall be able to compete on equal terms with the synthetic product has been sanctioned on certain conditions. Much progress has been made in the improvement of the tobacco plant, whilst in large areas of the cotton-growing tracts pure strains giving a higher yield have replaced inferior mixed varieties. Long stapled exotic cottons have been introduced in suitable localities, the introduction of Cambodia Cotton in South India meeting with special success. Important work on rice, which has for its object the evolution of an improved strain from among the innumerable varieties at present grown, has been undertaken in several provinces. Considerable attention has been paid during the last five years to the development of the sugar industry. A sugarcane expert has been appointed, and a cane breeding station for the production of seedling canes has been established in Madras. A skilled sugar engineer has also been employed in the United Provinces. The Fibre Expert in Bengal has succeeded in isolating pure line cultures of jute which are superior to the mixed varieties at present cultivated. The appointment of an expert to investigate the possibility of reviving the silk industry in India has been sanctioned and he has already commenced his enquiries. A very rapid development has taken place in the work of demonstrating improved methods of cultivation and the use of improved implements. The number of farms devoted to the production of pure seed has very largely increased and the Agricultural Department as a whole has now 374 farms and demonstration plots in all in its charge as against 51 in 1910. The question of organisation to ensure a continuous supply of pure seed has assumed great importance and both in this respect and in regard to the dissemination of agricultural improvements generally the growth of the co-operative movement has immensely assisted the work of the Agricultural Department.

Since the establishment of Agricultural Colleges in some of the provinces, the Pusa Institute has devoted its attention principally to research, but during the last five years 150 students have passed through its post-graduate courses and its short courses in special subjects. The unsuitability to local needs of the standard curriculum originally prescribed for the Provincial Colleges led to a reconsideration of the policy laid down by the Board of Agriculture in 1906 and 1908. It was found that the courses were in most cases not suited to the class of students for which the colleges are intended and the Board of Agriculture, at its meeting of 1913, therefore recommended that strict uniformity should not be insisted on and that freedom should be given to work out schemes suited to local conditions. In accordance with this recommendation, a two years' preliminary course to be followed by a more advanced course of eighteen months' duration, has been introduced at the Coimbatore College in Madras and steps have been taken to introduce courses on somewhat similar lines at the agricultural colleges in the Central Provinces, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and the Punjab. The first course, which is of a practical character, is intended, on the one hand, for those who wish to take up farming for its own sake and for those who wish to enter the Agricultural Department in a subordinate capacity and, on the other hand, as a preliminary training for the more advanced scientific course. Only a proportion, therefore, of those who pass through the first course will be admitted to the second course. An interesting experiment which has every prospect of success has been the establishment of vernacular agricultural schools in Bombay for training the sons of small land-holders. A thoroughly practical course lasting for two years is given in these schools.

The work of the Civil Veterinary Department expanded rapidly during this period. An important measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1912 when the post of Inspector-General was abolished. The Imperial staff of the Department on the executive side was strengthened by the addition of four appointments to provide Superintendents for the new province of Bihar and Orissa

Agricultural
Education.

Civil Veterinary
Department.

and for the North-West Frontier Province, and additional Superintendents for the Central Provinces and the United Provinces. The three latter appointments are, however, still unfilled mainly on account of difficulties in recruitment owing to the war. The Provincial and Subordinate Veterinary staff in the Central Provinces and the Punjab was reorganised and a subordinate veterinary service was created in Baluchistan. The increasing demand for veterinary education in the provincial colleges resulted in the reorganisation of the teaching staff at the Punjab and Bombay Veterinary Colleges, the most noteworthy feature of which was the addition of two European Professors to the new Punjab College which was formally opened by the Viceroy on December 10th, 1915. An additional European Professor has also been sanctioned for the Bengal College. The research work carried on at the Muktesar Laboratory developed at a remarkable rate and the discovery of improved methods for the manufacture of anti-rinderpest and other sera and of improved methods of treatment enabled a large increase in the outturn of sera to be obtained at a reduced cost. To meet the growing demand for sera not only from India but from other countries, and to obviate the difficulties encountered in the preparation at Muktesar of serum from cattle from the plains, the construction of a properly equipped branch laboratory at Bareilly to take the place of the temporary laboratory, which was used for research work only, was sanctioned and work on the buildings has been commenced. A Pathologist was added to the staff of the Laboratory.

Muktesar
Laboratory.

Improvement of
cattle.

The important question of the improvement of cattle in India continued to receive attention, and as a preliminary to other measures a general survey of the cattle question was made in almost all provinces. A cattle-breeding farm has been started at Sepaya in North Bihar, and a proposal that a specially qualified Deputy Director of Agriculture should be placed in charge of cattle-breeding and dairying operations in the Madras Presidency is under consideration.

LAND SURVEYS.

Progress of
topographical
programme.

The Topographical Survey of India, which is the main work of the Survey of India, has on the whole made satisfactory progress since 1910. Progress has not, however, been so rapid as the Survey Committee of 1905 anticipated, and it was therefore decided in 1913 to reduce the scale of survey in certain sparsely populated tracts of country from 1 inch = 1 mile to 1 inch = 2 miles. The field work of many of the Survey Parties has been considerably curtailed since the outbreak of the war, owing to the absence of a large number of officers on military duty. A topographical survey of Lower Mesopotamia is being undertaken.

Map reproduction.

Very marked progress has been made in map reproduction. The outturn of printed maps has nearly doubled since 1910, the introduction of new methods and processes has resulted in the improvement of all maps, and reproduction in several colours has added to their usefulness and popularity. Several sheets of the map of India on the scale of $\frac{1}{1,000,000}$ have been compiled and printed in accordance with the system laid down by the International Map Committee which met at London in 1909. A geographical map of India in different layers of colour representing successive zones of altitude was first printed in 1911, and great improvements have been effected in the editions of this map which have been printed since then. It has been decided that the scale of 1 inch = 2 miles should be adopted instead of the scale 1 inch = 4 miles for the tactical map of India, as the latter scale has been found too small and therefore unsuitable for military purposes.

Exploration.

Much important geographical exploration has been carried out during the last five years. Survey detachments accompanied the Abor, Miri, Mishmi, Hkamti Long and Aka Missions during the period 1911 to 1914, and a detachment was attached to the Cavaliere Filippo de Filippi's Scientific Expedition to the Western Himalayas and Karakoram mountains in 1913-14. A Survey Party also accompanied the Turco-Persian Boundary Commission. In the case of smaller exploration parties of which individual survey officers were members, the most valuable work was perhaps that done by Captains Bailey and Morshead. These officers in 1913 made an adventurous journey into the hitherto unknown

country of Po Me, and succeeded in establishing the identity of the Tsangpo river with the Brahmaputra.

The field work of the first general magnetic survey has been completed and has included the Island of Ceylon; magnetic observations were taken in co-operation with the Antarctic Expeditions of 1911 and 1912. The great triangulation of India has been extended to Burma on the east, to the Persian frontier on the west and has been linked up in the north across the Pamirs with the Russian triangulation in Eastern Turkestan, which, however, is not yet connected with the European system. The survey detachment which accompanied Cavaliere Filippo de Filippi accomplished scientific work of great interest, and for the first time in the history of the department longitudes were determined by wireless signals.

Scientific operations.

The reorganisation of the different services which constitute the Survey of India Department, which had been commenced during Lord Minto's Viceroyalty, was completed in 1912 by the combination of the old and new Provincial Services on a scale of pay similar to that which had been sanctioned for the new service.

Reorganisation of the Provincial Service.

LAND REVENUE.

The decision that no definite limitations to enhancements of land revenue in districts in which the land revenue is periodically revised should be prescribed, is perhaps the most important decision in regard to land revenue matters which has been reached during the past five years. Although no definite limitations to enhancements have been prescribed, this period has been characterised by the continuance and the development of the policy of moderation in land revenue assessments and the Government of India have, on several occasions, made suitable modifications in the proposals of Local Governments in regard to resettlements which have appeared to them insufficiently to carry out this policy.

Limitation of enhancements.

A question closely connected with the limitation of enhancements was that of the reduction of the standard of assessment in the Central Provinces. It was decided in 1911 that in the districts of those provinces forming part of the old Saugor and Nerbudda territories, the land revenue demand should generally approximate to half-assets whilst in districts forming part of the old Nagpur Province the fraction of the assets taken at successive settlements should be gradually altered so as to approximate ultimately to half the assets, enhancements being generally limited in the meantime to half the increase of assets since the last settlement.

Reduction of the standard of assessment in the Central Provinces.

An important measure of decentralisation in regard to the control exercised by Local Governments over settlement operations was carried out in 1911, when the Local Governments of the larger provinces, except Madras and Bombay which already possessed full powers, were given authority to undertake, without reference to the Government of India, resettlements when an enhancement of not more than 33 per cent. (40 per cent. in the case of Burma) is anticipated, and to confirm resettlements when the percentage of enhancement does not exceed that figure.

Control of land revenue settlements.

The question of the continuous maintenance of the record-of-rights in Bengal which had been under discussion for more than 25 years, was reopened in 1912. Both that Government and the Government of Bihar and Orissa recommended that continuous maintenance should be abandoned in favour of periodical revision, and that the experiment in continuous maintenance which had been started in Bihar and Orissa should be dropped. It was decided that the matter should be referred to the Committee which had been appointed to examine the conditions prevailing in Bengal and to report in what respects the administrative machinery of that province could be improved. As the opinion of the Committee coincided with that of the Local Governments, the proposals of the latter were accepted. The view that it should be possible when a local circle agency has been fully established, gradually to build up a maintenance system as part of the ordinary administration was, however, impressed upon them.

Maintenance of the record-of-rights in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa.

The most important tenancy legislation of the period under review was the Orissa Tenancy Act II of 1913. A tenancy Bill for Orissa, which included a chapter relating to the maintenance of records, had been introduced into the

Tenancy legislation.

Bengal Legislative Council and passed in March 1912. In view however of the contentious nature of the Bill, of the opposition raised to it by the representatives of Bihar and Orissa and of the fact that the Province of Orissa would shortly be separated from Bengal and become incorporated in a province that would have a Legislative Council of its own, His Excellency the Viceroy decided to withhold his assent to the Bill. A fresh Bill from which the chapter on maintenance was omitted, was therefore introduced into the Bihar Legislative Council in 1913. The absence of the chapter on maintenance considerably decreased the opposition to the Bill and it was passed into law without difficulty in April 1913.

Punjab Canal Colonies.

During the period under review sanction was accorded to schemes for the colonisation of the areas commanded by the Upper Jhelum Canal, the Upper Chenab Canal and the Lower Bari Doab Canal. The Lower Bari Doab scheme was much the most important of these, the culturable irrigable area under the canal being approximately 1,192,000 acres. Striking features of the scheme are the system of horse and mule-breeding grants under which 680,000 acres will be allotted, 103,000 acres being distributed to retired native officers and sepoys, and the reservation of 75,000 acres for grants on suitable terms to members of the hereditary landed gentry of the Punjab. An area of 75,000 acres of canal land has been reserved for reward grants on peasant conditions to those who have distinguished themselves in the war or their heirs.

Punjab Colonisation Act V of 1912.

Lord Minto had in 1907 withheld his assent from a Bill dealing with the administration of the Canal Colonies in the Punjab. A Committee was shortly afterwards appointed to investigate all aspects of Colony Administration and a revised Bill, based mainly on its recommendations, became law as Act V of 1912.

Agricultural Indebtedness.

With a view to check the alienation of agricultural land in Ajmer-Merwara and to save the agricultural classes of that province from sinking deeper into debt, the Ajmer Alienation of Land Regulation was passed in 1914. Similar legislation for the protection of the aboriginal tribes in the Central Provinces is under consideration.

Acquisition of land containing religious buildings.

In 1914 Local Governments were asked to make special provision in their rules under the Land Acquisition Act that due regard should be paid to the susceptibilities of persons interested in land containing religious buildings, tombs or graveyards.

CO-OPERATION.

Progress of movement.

The past quinquennium has proved a momentous period in the history of co-operation in India. The remarkable progress which has to be recorded in every direction can best be illustrated by a few statistics. At the commencement of the period to which this summary relates, the number of societies in existence was 3,498, the total number of members 230,698 and the working capital nearly 124 lakhs of rupees. By the end of the year 1914-15, the total number of societies had increased to 17,327, the total number of members to 824,469 and the working capital to over 896½ lakhs of rupees. Agricultural Societies alone numbered 16,016 with 664,446 members and a working capital of nearly 454½ lakhs of rupees. The profits resulting from the operations of the different classes of societies in 1914-15 amounted to over 31 lakhs of rupees.

The Co-operative Societies Act II of 1912.

The manner in which the co-operative movement had developed since the passing of Act X of 1904 had caused doubts as to the adequacy of that Act. Proposals for its amendment were drawn up by the Conference of Registrars which met in 1909, and these eventually resulted in the Co-operative Societies Act which became law as Act II of 1912. Under the new Act co-operative associations for other purposes besides credit were allowed. The old distinction between rural and urban societies was swept away, and a more scientific distinction based on the nature of the liability of members whether limited or unlimited, was adopted in its place. The registration of Unions, Central Banking Unions and Central Banks was for the first time expressly legalised. A number of minor improvements with regard to registration, audit and similar administrative details were at the same time introduced.

Resolution of 1914.

The immediate effect of the Act was to infuse a new energy into the movement. New types of societies for the sale of produce, cattle insurance, milk

supply, the purchase of yarn, silk and manure and the retailing of farm implements and common necessities were registered, whilst the number of Central Institutions grew rapidly. In 1914 it was held that the time had come to take stock of the position and a comprehensive Resolution was therefore issued reviewing the progress which had been made and laying down in general terms the practical lessons that might be drawn from experience up to date. Reference was made in the Resolution to the necessity for examining the administration of the whole co-operative movement in the stages above that of the individual society, not only in regard to the relation of Central and Provincial Banks with the money market on the one hand, and with their constituent societies on the other, but also in regard to the extent to which expert assistance was required for management, inspection and audit. A Committee of officials and non-officials under the presidency of Sir Edward Maclagan was appointed by a Resolution of October 8th, 1914, to enquire into and report on this aspect of the question, and was at the same time given discretion to make recommendations regarding any other important aspects of the co-operative movement. The Committee met early in November 1914 and submitted a valuable report which marks a distinct stage in the history of co-operation in India at the end of June 1915. The broad results which have emerged from the Committee's enquiries are, in the first place, that in the majority of cases primary societies fall short of the co-operative ideal, and in the second that although, owing to the rapid expansion of deposits, co-operative banks have hitherto been able to meet their obligations promptly, it has become necessary to place the whole organisation on a sounder financial basis, especially by the provision of adequate fluid resources. The Committee has kept in view the development of a truly co-operative system rather than cheap money-lending, and also the improvement of the financial position of the whole organisation, and with a few exceptions the numerous recommendations contained in their Report aim to securing one or other of these objects. These recommendations are still under consideration.

Appointment of
Committee on
Co-operation.

Four Provincial Banks for Burma, Bombay, the Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa have been established since 1910. Of these, the Bombay Bank deserves special mention as it represents a departure from the principle, from which there have been very few exceptions, that Government should abstain from giving direct financial aid to the co-operative movement. The Bank, which was established in 1911, is empowered to issue debentures up to the value of three times the paid-up share capital, subject to a maximum of Rs. 20 lakhs and on these debentures Government guarantee a rate of 4 per cent. until they are redeemed.

Establishment of
Provincial Banks.

Considerable progress has been made in the formation of Cattle Insurance Societies in Burma and Coorg. A proposal to establish a central Cattle Re-insurance Society in Burma and to grant it a loan from Government up to an annual limit of Rs. 25,000 free of interest for a period of five years in the first instance, was sanctioned in January 1915.

Cattle Insurance
Societies.

The co-operative movement has during the last five years been called upon to face two severe crises. The first of these was due to the extensive failure of joint stock banks in Bombay, the Punjab and the United Provinces which commenced in September 1913, and the second that due to the war. The effect on co-operation of the banking crisis was generally speaking entirely beneficial and a large increase of deposits in co-operative societies resulted from it. The manner in which co-operative societies have withstood the strain imposed by war conditions has been satisfactory. Only at the outset was any assistance from Government necessary. At the end of 1914 the Governments of the United Provinces and the Punjab were authorised to make special advances up to a limit of three lakhs and two lakhs respectively to co-operative societies in those Provinces. Of the advances so made, the greater part has already been recovered.

Stability of the
movement.

FOREST ADMINISTRATION.

During the last five years the number of officers in all branches of the Forest Service has continued to increase, whilst considerable additions have been

Reorganisations.

made to the subordinate and clerical staff in several provinces. The most important reorganisation which has been sanctioned is that of the controlling staff of the Forest Department in the United Provinces. Chief Conservatorships of Forests have been sanctioned for the United Provinces and Bombay.

Commercial development.

The commercial work of the department has received a decided stimulus from the industrial development noticeable throughout India in recent years. Amongst the more important of the rising industries which have received the special attention of the Forest Department are the production of paper pulp from bamboos and forest grasses, the manufacture of matches, the tapping of pine resin and the distillation of turpentine, the preparation of tannin extracts, the antiseptic treatment of timber for railway sweepers and the utilisation of Indian woods for a variety of purposes.

Forest Research and education.

Satisfactory progress has been made in scientific research. New buildings for the Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun have been erected and equipped, the botanical herbarium has been extended, the museums of zoology and forest products have been enlarged and a commencement has been made in the formation of a silvicultural museum. The Research Institute, in addition, is the centre for the training of the probationers for the Provincial Forest Service; the members of that service who were formerly recruited by promotion from the subordinate service are now for the most part appointed direct and specially trained there. In consequence of the institution of a special course of training for the Provincial Service, steps are being taken to decentralise completely the training of the subordinate staff, and this will before long be carried out entirely at local forest schools and colleges.

Sylviculture and working plans.

In several provinces there has been considerable progress in the substitution of improved systems of forest management for the provisional methods of treatment formerly in vogue. This has been rendered possible by the increased attention given to the silvicultural study of the principal species of trees. Much work has also been done in regard to the measurement of forest crops and the collection of statistics relating to growth and volume production. This work is of great importance as the statistics of this nature are essential if forests are to be worked on a correct financial basis.

METEOROLOGY.

Work of the Department.

Since 1910 substantial progress has been made by the Meteorological Department not only in its every day work of recording, collating and publishing information but also in scientific investigation. The outstanding feature of the former branch of work has been the transmission by wireless telegraphy of meteorological information to and from ships at sea—a system which was introduced in 1912 when wireless stations on the coast sent their weather telegrams daily to any ship asking for the information. In 1915 a free broadcast distribution of weather information twice daily from wireless stations was introduced. In connexion with this service, arrangements were made in 1914 with several steamship companies, under which meteorological information was transmitted from sea to Simla and Calcutta so long as the ships remained in wireless communication with India. This service has been temporarily suspended during the war but will be resumed as soon as circumstances allow. A revised system of storm warning signals for use at ports is to be introduced on the 1st January 1916, and there has been a great extension in the work of warning railway, canal and other engineers of the likelihood of heavy rain.

Storm warning signals.

Upper air investigation

Forecasts.

2. On the scientific side by the help of a grant of three lakhs of rupees to be spent in ten years, which was made in 1912, a great advance in the investigation of upper air problems has been effected. A large observatory fitted with the necessary apparatus has been established at Agra, and balloons are now sent up regularly not only from Agra but also from other stations in India, with the object of obtaining data regarding the pressure, temperature and humidity of the upper atmosphere. The preparation of the monsoon forecasts is one of the most responsible duties of the Director General of Observatories, and with the object of rendering the preparation more reliable a statistical investigation of the effects of various meteorological factors in all parts of the world on Indian weather has been made and published in the meteorological memoirs of

the Department Important developments of the work carried on at the Solar Physics Observatory at Kodaikanal appear likely to result from the discovery made by Mr. Evershed during his visit to Kashmir in 1913 that the atmosphere there is more suitable for solar observations than in any other known part of the world. The main result of Mr. Evershed's first visit was so important that he again visited Kashmir in 1915 with a large staff to verify his conclusions and the data have been examined. The question of removing the Solar Observatory from Kodaikanal to Kashmir may have to be considered.

Kashmir Solar
Observations.

GENERAL.

Sir R. Carlyle, Member of the Viceroy's Council, was in charge of this Department from before the beginning of this period till July 1915, and was succeeded by the Hon'ble Mr. Hill, C.S.I., at present Member of the Council of the Governor-General. The Department had the advantage of the able co-operation of Sir E. Maclagan, K.C.I.E., and of Mr. Kershaw, C.I.E., as Secretaries to Government, and it cannot be denied that much progress has been made in the many branches of administration under the direction of the Department during the period of their services at the Headquarters of Government.

Constitution of the
Department.

VI

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

Reorganisation
of the Provincial
Engineer Service.

IN 1908 a scheme for the reorganisation of the Engineer establishment was, with the approval of the Secretary of State, promulgated by Lord Minto's Government. The main features of this scheme were the substitution of time scales of pay for the graded system of promotion formerly in force and the complete separation of the Imperial and Provincial Engineer establishments by placing them in two distinct cadres with different rates of promotion to the rank of Executive Engineer. This scheme was not favourably received by the majority of the members of the Provincial Engineer Service, who attached much greater importance to being borne on a combined list with their Imperial *confreres* than was believed to be the case. In order to allay the discontent which had been caused and also to establish the Provincial Engineer Service on a satisfactory basis and to attract a better class of recruits to its ranks, the Government of India in 1911 devised a new scheme which provided for the abolition of the dual cadre, the equalization of the period of promotion to executive rank in the two services and the increase of the pay of the Provincial officers to an amount bearing as nearly as possible the same proportion to the pay of the Imperial officers as that which existed prior to the introduction of the time scale of pay in 1908. This scheme was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and was promulgated in the Public Works Department Resolution No. 439—458 E., dated the 15th May 1912.

Strength of
the Engineer
Establishment.

At the commencement of the period under review the strength of the permanent Engineer establishment in the Public Works Department, excluding the State Railways establishment, throughout India amounted to 705 officers, exclusive of a reserve of 60 officers for both the Public Works Department and State Railways for foreign service deputations. Since then, owing partly to the territorial readjustment of Bengal and the formation of the provinces of Bihar and Orissa and Assam and partly to an extension of the operations of the Public Works Department, the strength of the establishment has been increased to 761 officers. Proposals for further increasing the strength, in all by 53 officers, partly with the object of providing for the Sanitary Engineering establishment in the cadre, are now either before the Secretary of State or under the consideration of the Government of India.

Architects.

The policy of appointing qualified Architects to design the more important public buildings was continued and Consulting Architects were appointed in Burma, the United Provinces and the Punjab in the years 1911, 1912 and 1914 respectively, and thus all the major provinces have now an expert architectural adviser on their staff.

Withdrawal of
officers on account
of the war.

In common with other civil departments of the administration the Public Works Department relinquished a number of officers for military duty in connection with the war. Up to date altogether 96 officers (28 Royal Engineers out of an establishment of 32 and 68 Civil Engineers and others) have been withdrawn for this purpose.

Delhi
Establishment.

For the construction of the New Capital and for the execution of ordinary works in the Delhi Province a schedule of the necessary establishment consisting of a Chief Engineer, Superintending Engineer, a number of Executive and Assistant Engineers, Sanitary and Electrical Engineers, Architects, etc., with a strong subordinate staff was sanctioned at an approximate cost of about Rs. 9 lakhs per annum. To obtain the men to fill these appointments it was necessary to indent freely on the permanent and temporary establishment of other Provinces. The designing of the Central Buildings has been entrusted to two leading Architects, Messrs. Lutyens and Baker, under certain terms drawn up by the Secretary of State. In order to deal promptly and effectively with details of so large an undertaking a Committee, known as the Imperial Delhi Committee, consisting of the Chief Commissioner, Delhi Province (President), the Chief Engineer, the Resident Architect, and a Financial Member, was formed with extensive financial powers.

IRRIGATION.

During the period 1910-11 to 1914-15, capital outlay to the following extent was incurred on irrigation works. For the purposes of comparison the Budget figures for 1915-16 are shown in the last column of the statement:—

Class of Works.	Sources from which financed.	1910-11.	1911-12.	1912-13.	1913-14.	1914-15, Revised.	1915-16, Budget.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Productive . .	Loan funds .	1,80,58,320	2,30,47,958	2,11,24,946	1,92,34,209	1,75,74,000	1,65,00,000
Protective . .	Current Revenues	49,57,735	53,91,153	59,98,839	83,20,270	83,84,000	73,00,000
Minor Works for which Capital and Revenue accounts are maintained.	Ditto .	11,02,541	11,42,741	10,18,229	15,87,556	20,46,000	8,71,000
	TOTAL .	2,41,18,596	2,95,81,852	2,81,42,014	2,91,42,035	2,80,04,000	2,46,71,000

The past quinquennium has been marked by notable progress in canal construction, the average annual outlay of that period having far excelled the figure attained in previous years. The great Triple Canal project in the Punjab, which was started during the administration of Lord Curzon, is now rapidly approaching completion. This work consists of three distinct, though interdependent, systems known as the Upper Jhelum, the Upper Chenab, and the Lower Bari Doab Canals, and it owes its inception to the existence of the abundant winter supplies that are available in the Jhelum river, and to the possibility of augmenting the Chenab and Ravi rivers from that source. The first-named canal will act primarily as a feeder. Its headworks are situated at Mangla, in Kashmir territory, at a point where the river finally emerges from the Himalayan foot-hills. After irrigating a small tract in its comparatively short course, the Upper Jhelum Canal will empty its supplies into the Chenab river, to restore the water withdrawn by the Upper Chenab system for the irrigation of the northern portion of the Rechna (Ravi-Chenab) Doab. The surplus not so utilised will be thrown into the Ravi, from which it will be withdrawn at Balloki by the Lower Bari Doab Canal, to serve the extensive and exceedingly dry waste in the uplands of the Montgomery district. The Upper Chenab Canal was opened for irrigation by the Viceroy on the 12th April 1912, the Lower Bari system by Sir Louis Dane a year later, and the Upper Jhelum Canal and headworks by the Viceroy on December the 9th, 1915.

New works sanctioned or in progress in period reviewed.

Triple Canal Project.

Another important irrigation work that has recently come into operation is the Upper Swat River Canal in the North-West Frontier Province. This system derives its supplies from the Swat river and possesses the unique feature of a tunnel, some 2 miles in length, by which the supplies are conveyed through Malakand hill to the commanded area lying to the southward. This project is specially interesting in its political aspect with regard to the inducement offered to the inhabitants of these trans-frontier tracts to settle down to peaceful and prosperous methods of living. The canal was opened to irrigation early in 1914. Other systems that came into operation during the period under review are the Mahanadi Canal in the Central Provinces, the Mon in Burma, the Godavari in the Bombay Deccan, and the Tribeni in Bihar and Orissa. The more important of the new irrigation works that were sanctioned during Lord Hardinge's tenure of office are the Nira Right Bank Canal and the Gokak extension projects in the Bombay Presidency, the Weinganga and Mahanadi Canals in the Central Provinces, and the project for the provision of permanent headworks for the Ganges Canal at Hardwar.

Leading particulars as to the cost and scope of the works referred to above and of others that are now in course of construction are given in the appended table :—

Province.	Name and class of work.			Estimated cost, direct and indirect.	Expenditure to end of the year 1913-14, direct and indirect.	Irrigable area in acres.	District benefited.	Principal crops that will be produced.
				Rs.	Rs.			
Punjab.	* Lower canal.	Jhelum	Productive	1,89,63,988	1,59,66,086	766,132	Gujrat, Jhang and Shahpur.	Wheat, cotton and oil seeds.
	* Upper canal	Chenab	Do.	3,73,57,024	3,15,31,502	648,368	Sialkot, Gujranwala, Lahore and Montgomery.	Wheat, maize, millets, cotton and oil seeds.
	* Upper canal.	Jhelum	Do.	4,39,96,559	3,66,30,354	344,960	Gujrat . .	Wheat, cotton and oil seeds.
	* Lower Bari Doab canal.		Do.	2,23,28,402	1,87,01,306	877,908	Montgomery and Multan.	Wheat, maize, cotton and grain.
N.-W. F. Province.	Upper Swat River canal.		Do.	1,99,24,287	1,51,46,357	381,562	Peshawar . .	Wheat, barley and oats.
United Provinces.	Permanent Head Works, Upper Ganges canal		Productive	33,78,324	14,72,172	86,166	Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Muttra, Agra, Etah and Mainpuri.	Sugarcane, wheat and cotton.
	Ghaggar canal .		Protective	35,04,454	8,75,981	66,000	Central up-lands of Mirzapur.	Rice and wheat.
Central Provinces.	Weinganga canal .		Productive	38,03,204	12,40,007	78,965	Balaghat and Bhandara.	Rice.
	Mahanadi „ .		Do.	99,30,217	21,00,946	360,000	Raipur . .	Do.
	Tandula „ .		Protective	99,98,807	37,47,585	263,412	Drug . . .	Do.
	Chorkhamara tank project.		Do.	8,65,484	72,159	20,000	Bhandara . .	Do.
	Badalkhassa tank project.		Do.	6,57,288	42,830	18,376	Do. . .	Do.
	Nalleshwar tank project.		Do.	6,32,542	1,49,383	12,000	Chanda . .	Do.
	* Asola Mendha Tank.		Productive	17,97,578	14,93,981	60,000	Do. . .	Rice and wheat.
Madras.	Mopad reservoir .		Protective	21,51,000	8,55,135	12,500	Nellore . .	Rice.
	* Divi pumping system.		Productive	19,93,000	18,70,602	50,000	Kistna . .	Do.
	* Nagavalli River system.		Do.	18,16,300	16,04,242	23,814	Vizagapatam .	Do.
Bombay (Deccan)	Nira Right Bank canal.		Protective	2,57,72,499	33,31,361	283,000	Poona, Satara, Phatan State and Sholapur.	Jowar, bajri, groundnut, wheat, gram and sugarcane.
	* Pravara River canal.		Do.	76,10,926	42,82,216	65,088	Ahmednagar .	Wheat, gram bajri and jowar.
	* Godavari canal .		Do.	95,61,044	90,74,236	79,440	Nasik and Ahmednagar.	Wheat, fodder, gram, bajri and sugarcane.
	Budhihal tank .		Do.	14,54,611	5,08,745	5,718	Sholapur . .	Jowari and wheat.
Bombay (Sind).	* Mahiwah canal .		Productive	15,17,356	14,37,324	65,950	Shikarpur .	Wheat and millets.
Bihar and Orissa.	* Tribeni canal .		Protective	78,49,661	72,75,637	106,000	Champaran .	Rice.
Burma .	Ye-u canal . .		Productive	50,54,752	21,36,436	108,294	Shwebo . .	Do.

* In operation.

Projects still under consideration.

In the period reviewed five projects of the first magnitude have been under investigation. A brief description of these follows :—

Sukkur project—Owing to the large withdrawals of water from the affluents of the Indus to supply the canals in the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province, it is possible that the level of the Indus may eventually fall so low as to affect the net work of inundation canals in Sind. The Government of India on the advice of Sir John Benton, the late Inspector General of Irrigation, recommended to the Secretary of State, in 1912, a scheme which contemplated the construction of a barrage across the river in the vicinity of Sukkur, a great canal taking off the left bank, and the widening of the

Eastern Nara Supply Channel. These works were estimated to cost about Rs. 780 lakhs and it was calculated that they would bring an additional area of $2\frac{1}{2}$ million acres of cotton, wheat and rice under irrigation. In view of the technical difficulties which the case presented and the momentous issues involved, the Secretary of State decided to refer the matter to a Committee, the majority of whom were irrigation officers who had lately retired from the service of the Indian Government. The conclusion reached by that body was that the need of the work had not been sufficiently proved and that the matter should be subjected to further investigation. The Secretary of State accordingly asked that the question should be further examined and this is now being done.

Sarda project.—This is a project for the utilisation of the abundant supplies of the Sarda river. This scheme which is estimated to increase irrigation by $1\frac{1}{2}$ million acres at a capital cost of about Rs. $6\frac{1}{2}$ crores, involves certain difficulties, and the Government of the United Provinces has since recommended an alternative scheme which contemplates the utilisation of the Sarda supplies in Oudh only.

Sutlej valley project.—In the Punjab investigations are proceeding with regard to the utilisation of the waters of the Sutlej for the irrigation of the wide and rainless tracts to the south of that river both in British territory and in the Native States of Bhawalpur and Bikanir. No detailed estimate has yet been drawn up, but it is expected that the scheme will involve an outlay of some 8 or 9 crores of rupees and enable an area of 3 million acres of wheat, gram, *jowar* and cotton to be matured annually.

Cauvery Reservoir project.—A scheme has been prepared for the construction of a storage reservoir on the Cauvery river in the Madras Presidency for the extension and improvement of irrigation from the Cauvery Delta system. It involves the construction of a dam 200 feet high which will be capable of impounding 90,000 million cubic feet of water. If constructed, it will easily surpass in size any similar work in the world. It is estimated to cost Rs. 370 lakhs and to bring an additional area of 473,000 acres of rice under irrigation.

Kistna Reservoir project.—Another large project which has been drawn up in Madras is for the construction of an immense storage reservoir on the Kistna river to admit of an extension of irrigation from the Kistna Delta system. The dimensions of this work as at present designed will even surpass those of the proposed Cauvery dam. The project provides for an extension of 735,000 acres of rice irrigation and is estimated to cost about 8 crores of rupees. It is apprehended, however, that certain serious difficulties of a technical nature will necessitate a reconsideration of the design and the matter is now engaging the attention of the Madras engineers.

The following table exhibits the latest recorded statistics of the results attained by the several classes of irrigation works in operation in India:—

Latest recorded statistics relating to irrigation.

Classification.	No. of works.	Capital outlay.	Area irrigated.	Net revenue after paying working expenses.	Return per cent. on capital outlay.
		Rs.	Acres.	Rs.	
Productive Works . . .	43	47,90,13,006	14,828,800	4,66,75,323	9.74
Protective Works . . .	30	6,71,62,146	494,300	7,30,160	1.09
Minor Works having Capital and Revenue Accounts (including works under construction.)	119	6,59,46,330	1,787,100	28,93,531	4.39
Minor Works having only Revenue Accounts.	2,513,800	33,27,097	...
Minor Works having no Capital or Revenue accounts.	3,275,200	97,44,362	...
TOTAL .	192	61,21,21,482	22,849,200	6,33,70,373	...

NAVIGATION.

The question of inland navigation in connection with the improvement of the waterways of the maritime provinces of Bengal and Burma has of late received serious attention. In 1909, an officer was deputed at the

instance of the Government of India to report on the waterways of Eastern Bengal and Assam and his suggestions resulted in the preparation of a programme of the measures to be undertaken. The Government of Bengal have since appointed a standing committee to advise them on the subject and they propose, as soon as the financial situation permits, to equip the Presidency with a fleet of dredgers. The local Engineers are now elaborating, in consultation with the Inspector General of Irrigation, a scheme, known as the Grand Trunk canal project, which is calculated to shorten appreciably the journey between Calcutta and Eastern Bengal besides avoiding the serious dangers to which small craft are exposed on the outer or coast route. In Burma the Secretary of State sanctioned in 1911 the Twante canal project which will improve communications between the port of Rangoon and the rich rice-producing lands of the Irrawady Delta. The work is estimated to cost Rs. 68 lakhs inclusive of depreciation on the dredging plant, and to yield a net revenue of Rs. 5,20,000 a year or a return of 7.65 per cent.

ROADS AND BUILDINGS BRANCH.

The following are some typical works executed by this branch.

The principal administrative change necessitating the provision of new accommodation and connected works was the inauguration of the new winter Headquarters of the Government of India at Delhi.

New Delhi.

At the Imperial Darbar assembled at Delhi on the 12th December, 1911, His Majesty the King-Emperor announced the transfer of the Headquarters of the Government of India from Calcutta to Delhi. Investigations were immediately started with a view to the selection of a suitable site for a new capital city adjacent to the existing City of Delhi and preliminary arrangements for the preparation of project plans and estimates for the new City were put in hand.

It was anticipated that some years would elapse before the new capital would be sufficiently advanced to be occupied by the Government of India and therefore, simultaneously with the arrangements for the main project, arrangements were devised to enable the Government of India to be temporarily accommodated in Delhi in the following and succeeding winters. A suitable special staff was formed and during the year private houses in Delhi were leased for temporary residential accommodation, other buildings were leased or acquired and altered and extended, and a building was constructed to accommodate the Imperial Secretariat and attached offices together with a suitable Council Chamber. These works were completed within 8 months, at an initial cost of Rs. 59,33,889. The necessary roads, lighting and sanitary and other improvements were also taken in hand and have since been continued under the local administration.

While the special staff was being organised and the preliminary arrangements for the preparation of the main project were being made, a committee of town-planning and architectural experts, including Messrs Lutyens and Lanchester, Architects, Mr. Brodie, Captain Swinton and Mr. Ward, were engaged upon the investigation of suitable sites and the preparation of a design for the lay-out for the new city. A site on the south of the existing city was eventually selected and the tentative plan for the lay-out has since been modified and completed by the Imperial Delhi Committee and accepted by the Government of India.

In order to deal promptly and effectively with the details, a Committee, including the Hon'ble Mr Hailey, C.S.I., the Chief Commissioner of the new Province of Delhi, as President and Messrs. H. T. Keeling, C.S.I., Chief Engineer, W. H. Nicholls, Architect, and H. G. Stokes, C.I.E., I.C.S., as Financial Member, was formed to administer the project. After carefully considering the question of the re-alignment of the Delhi-Agra Chord line in connection with the construction of the new capital at Delhi, the Government of India came to the conclusion that a diversion of the existing Delhi-Agra Chord on an alignment settled in consultation with the Imperial Delhi Committee, together with the construction of a through station was likely to meet all railway requirements for an indefinite time. They have therefore

definitely decided to abandon all idea of a large central terminus as originally contemplated by the new Delhi Town-Planners. Both the new line and the station will be permanent. The cost of the diversion roughly estimated at between Rs. 6 and 7 lakhs will be borne by the new Delhi estimates, and the cost of the station and its connections by railway funds.

The project estimates for the construction of the new Imperial Capital, which were submitted by the Imperial Delhi Committee to the Government of India on the 29th December 1913, amounted to Rs. 10,50 lakhs under the project proper, and Rs. 1,34.64 lakhs under contingent liabilities, making a total of Rs. 11,84.6 lakhs including provision for the old city extension scheme. On examination the Government of India eliminated the city extension scheme, and, with other modifications, reduced the total cost to Rs. 9.17 lakhs including a special reserve of Rs. 1.50 lakhs, which was sanctioned by the Secretary of State.

Apart from the preparation of the project estimate, the work done during the year 1913-14 was necessarily of a preliminary character and was of such a kind as to facilitate and clear the ground for the subsequent operations. The total expenditure during the year was Rs. 67,09,384.

During 1914-15 and 1915-16 preliminary work and preparation of plans and estimates continued. Work was also started on the foundations and base-ments of the Secretariats and Government House. Some bungalows for Gazetted Officers and European clerks and over 200 quarters for Indian clerks were in course of erection. Some expenditure was also incurred on the acquisition of further land. The total expenditure during the year 1914-15 was Rs. 53,76,765.

In the special circumstances arising out of the war the Government of India thought it desirable to reduce the grant for the year 1915-16 to a minimum. Expenditure has therefore been limited to Rs. 50 lakhs which, it was considered, would suffice to carry on in some degree the work already in progress, and so obviate the deterioration of material and the disbanding of establishments. A provisional grant of Rs. 40 lakhs has been sanctioned for outlay on the new capital for the year 1916-17.

His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor expressed a wish that the Throne Pavilion, which occupied a central position in the amphitheatre which was used for the Coronation Durbar held in Delhi on 12th December, 1911, should be commemorated by the erection of a suitable memorial on the site. A scheme was sanctioned for the construction of a memorial pillar in accordance with a design prepared by Mr. W. H. Nicholls, Architect Member, Imperial Delhi Committee, and the work is nearing completion.

Other administrative changes necessitating extensive building projects were : the project for the construction of office and residential buildings for the new Headquarters of the Government of Bengal at Dacca at a cost of Rs. 68½ lakhs ; the Bankipur project for the provision of office and residential accommodation and connected works for the temporary and permanent Headquarters of the newly constituted Government of Bihar and Orissa, at Ranchi and Bankipur—cost Rs. 1,68,17,000 ; buildings required in connection with a redistribution of administrative districts in the Madras Presidency—cost Rs. 41,91,100 ; and works for the new Headquarters of the Sibsagar District transferred from Sibsagar to Jorhat—cost Rs. 16,52,696. Other projects.

New Jails are being constructed at Secunderabad, Andheri and Monghyr—cost on the aggregate Rs. 51,63,500 ; New Custom houses are under construction at Karachi and Bombay, both required in connection with Port improvements—cost Rs. 31,27,500 ; a new High Court at Allahabad cost Rs. 14,93,000 ; new Telegraph offices at Rangoon and an extension of the Central Telegraph office at Calcutta—cost Rs. 17,86,500 and lunatic asylum for Europeans and for Indians at Ranchi—cost Rs. 40,70,900. An estimate, amounting to Rs. 14,96,485 for a new Engineering College in Madras, was sanctioned in 1914. This project was based on an improved scheme for instruction in all branches of Engineering and for the inclusion of technological classes. The Indian Museum in Calcutta is being enlarged at a cost of Rs. 8,36,138.

The King Edward
VII Memorial at
Lahore.

In order to perpetuate the memory of his late Majesty King Edward VII, a Provincial Fund termed the "King Edward Memorial Fund" was inaugurated in June 1910, for the purpose of expanding the existing Medical college and Mayo and Albert Victor Hospitals. The subscriptions, including interest amounted to Rs. 17,50,000. These were supplemented by an Imperial contribution of Rs. 10 lakhs, a cash contribution by the Government of the Punjab of Rs. 4,48,678, the gift by the local Government of a free site valued at Rs. 4,50,000 and the remission of departmental charges on the work amounting to Rs. 4,13,902. The entire outlay on the scheme thus amounts to Rs. 40,62,580 including both direct and indirect charges, and was sanctioned by the Secretary of State in September 1914. The work is at present in progress and it is anticipated that when it has been completed the province of the Punjab will have a thoroughly up-to-date medical institution. The main building was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy on December 10th, 1915.

The Imperial
Legislative Council
Chamber at Simla.

The question of building a Council Chamber in Simla for the Imperial Legislative Council was raised in 1910 by the late Sir John Jenkins, but the matter was dropped as Lord Minto was of opinion that at that time the necessity for a Council Chamber could not be established. In the following year, however, the matter was re-opened and a detailed estimate, amounting to Rs. 4,67,191 was finally sanctioned and the building was completed in 1914. In 1913 an additional expenditure of Rs. 15,696 for certain panelling in the halls, stairs, landing, etc., was also sanctioned, raising the total cost to Rs. 4,82,887.

GENERAL.

A conference of Public Works Department engineers was held at Simla in September 1913 at which 76 delegates and visitors were present. The discussions and interchange of information which took place were most valuable and it has been decided to hold a similar conference at intervals of three years.

During most of the period under review, the Public Works Department was under the control of Sir Robert Carlyle, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, and it now has the Hon'ble Mr. Hill, C.S.I., C.I.E., Member of Council, at its head, while the Secretaries to the Department have been Sir L. Jacob, K.C.S.I., Mr. Gordon, C.I.E., and Mr. Russell, C.S.I., whose wide knowledge and technical experience have been of the greatest use to the Viceroy and the Government of India.

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

VII

THIS summary deals with the work of the Legislative Department during the period from the 23rd November, 1910, to the 31st March, 1916.

It is proposed to deal with the subject under three heads, namely :—

- (1) the working and changes in the constitution of the Legislative Councils during the period under review ;
- (2) the legislation undertaken by the Government of India, either in the Governor General's Council, by Ordinance, or under other legislative powers ; and
- (3) work, other than such legislation, carried out during the same period in the Legislative Department.

LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS.

Lord Hardinge's administration was one of great importance in the history of the Legislative Councils from the fact that the changes in their constitution effected by the Indian Councils Act of 1909 (9 Edw. VII, c. 4), were first tested by actual working for a period sufficiently long to enable their effects to be estimated. It is not within the scope of this paper to consider the working of these Councils from the point of view of policy, but from the purely departmental view, they have, as was expected at the time they were initiated, added considerably to the work of the Legislative Department. Additional Members have made free use of the powers conferred upon them, and their action under the rules relating to the discussion of financial matters and of matters of general public interest has increased the duties and responsibilities of the Department. During Lord Hardinge's term of office up to the session ending on the 1st of October 1915, 926 questions were asked and answered in the Legislative Council of the Governor General, and no less than 119 Resolutions were debated in that assembly. These figures show that the privileges conferred by the new Act were fully appreciated. As some evidence of the increase in business of the Legislative Council of the Governor General, it may be mentioned that the printed proceedings of that Council during the period in question fill 3,846 pages as compared with 1,805 pages for the period of the Earl of Minto's administration.

Save for the Government of India Act, 1912 (2 & 3 Geo. V, c. 6), no Statute was passed by Parliament in the period under review which affected the constitution of the Government of India ; but it is desirable that some mention should be made of the provisions of that Act. The first section was merely consequential on the creation of a Governor in Council in Bengal, and conferred upon that authority the like powers as are vested in the Governors of Madras and Bombay. The Act also provided for the constitution of an Executive Council for the Province of Bihar ; but the most important provision of the Act, from the departmental point of view, was that which enabled Legislative Councils to be created for Chief Commissionerships. This power has been exercised by the creation of Legislative Councils for the Chief Commissionerships of the Central Provinces and Assam, and the number therefore of legislative assemblies in this country has been raised from eight to ten. The further delegation of legislative powers so effected has rendered it possible to afford some measure of much needed relief to the Imperial Council, and to enable matters of purely local interest to be dealt with in assemblies which are in a better position to appreciate local conditions and needs than the Governor General's Council.

The Regulations relating to both the Imperial and Provincial Councils were modified on several occasions during the period under review, but the modifications for the most part related either to defects in details which have been disclosed by the working of the original Regulations, or were necessitated by the administrative changes consequent on the constitution of the Presidency

Constitutional
changes.

Council
Regulations.

of Bengal and the Provinces of Bihar and Orissa and Assam or by the constitution of new Councils.

The only important change of substance was the amendment made in January, 1914, which rendered it impossible for a person to be a Member of the Imperial Council and a Provincial Council at the same time.

President of the Council.

The Governor General, owing to continuous and ever-growing pressure of work, presided somewhat less frequently at meetings of Council than had been the practice in the past. The increase in the number of meetings made some relief of this nature necessary, and the framers of the Statute of 1909 had clearly foreseen and provided for this possibility. Notwithstanding this, however, a feature of His Excellency's administration has been the numerous and important declarations of policy which have been made when he has been presiding over his Legislative Council, and it is believed that the non-official members of the assembly have much appreciated the manner in which they were thus taken into the confidence of the Executive Government.

LEGISLATION UNDERTAKEN BY THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

Acts of the Governor General's Council.

During Lord Hardinge's term of office 73 Acts of the Governor General in Council were placed on the Indian Statute-book. They dealt with very various subjects, but perhaps the most prominent features of the legislation during the period under review were the great attention which was paid to commercial and kindred subjects, and the special enactments necessitated by the war.

Commercial legislation.

The important question of the law relating to patents and designs was dealt with in the Indian Patents and Designs Act of 1911 (II of 1911), which brought the law in India into line with the English legislation on the same subject, and provided a much needed reform by superseding the Inventions and Designs Act of 1888 (V of 1888), which had become out of date. Of much importance to commercial interests was the Indian Factories Act of 1911 (XII of 1911), which was the subject of prolonged debate and discussion in the Legislative Council, and marks a distinct step in the betterment of the conditions of labour in this country. The large question relating to the regulation of the business of Insurance in this country, which had long called for action, was dealt with in two Acts—the Provident Insurance Societies Act, 1912 (V of 1912), and the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act, 1912 (VI of 1912). These two Acts, which are complementary to one another, enabled the Government to bring under control a social and financial movement which had become one of great public importance and, while recognising the special conditions which obtain in this country and the need of fostering and encouraging thrift, at the same time restrained and subjected to legal control the growth of mushroom Provident Societies and Assurance Companies of doubtful stability. Following this important development in the law dealing with a special class of trading associations, the general revision of the Indian Company law was dealt with in the following year. The existing Act dated from 1882, and the development of commercial enterprise in this country and the changes in the law in England made it most desirable that this task should be taken up. The Indian Companies Act, 1913 (VII of 1913), which owes its early enactment largely to the personal interest of Lord Hardinge, brought Company law in this country into line with the English legislation on the same subject. This measure is perhaps the most important from the legal point of view of those which were enacted during the period under review. During the consideration of the Bill in Select Committee, certain clauses were inserted which endeavoured to deal with the thorny subject of Managing Agents which is one of great importance in this country owing to the large extent to which companies in India are conducted by that agency. These clauses, however, met with considerable opposition in Council, and the main Act—the Indian Companies Act of 1913 (VII of 1913)—became law without the clauses, which were re-circulated. In the following year, they were passed in an amended form as a separate Act, *viz.*, the Indian Companies (Amendment) Act of 1914 (XI of 1914), and came into force with the main Act on the same date—the 1st of April, 1914. It is too soon to estimate the full effect of this legislation,

but, at any rate, it may be regarded as a courageous attempt to deal with a matter which has long been pressed on the notice of the Government of India. The group of Acts referred to in this paragraph constitute the largest addition which has been made for many years to the commercial law of this country.

Another important measure which was passed during this period was the Indian Copyright Act of 1914 (III of 1914). The question of the amend-^{Copyright legislation.}ment of the law relating to copyright had long been under consideration, but all attempts to initiate legislation had been delayed by the protracted discussions which culminated in the English Statute creating Imperial copyright—the Copyright Act of 1911 (1 & 2 Geo. V, c. 46). The Indian legislation was confined to the necessary adaptations of that Statute, with the addition of a Chapter creating certain offences relating to copyright which, it is hoped, will give protection to owners of copyright who, up to that time, had possessed no summary remedies in this country.

Much of the time of the Legislature was engaged in dealing with matters^{Acts relating to administrative matters.} relating to general administration. Among the more important Acts of this class, the Criminal Tribes Act of 1911 (III of 1911) may be mentioned. This Act repealed the Criminal Tribes Act of 1871 (XXVII of 1871), and its amending Acts. The efforts which have been made, with a large measure of success in recent years, towards the reclamation of the professional criminal classes, rendered it essential that further legislative provision should be made to provide for the new policy which had been inaugurated. The expansion of the co-operative credit movement led to the enactment of the Co-operative Societies Act of 1912 (II of 1912). This Act repealed and re-enacted with amendments the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904 (X of 1904). Further experience and the extension of this movement had rendered it necessary to revise the law which dealt with these Societies. The Indian Lunacy Act of 1912 (IV of 1912), was largely a consolidating measure. The Indian law of lunacy, prior to the enactment of this Act, had been contained in a number of Acts, most of which were passed as far back as the year 1858. By its enactment the Statute-book was cleared of nine Acts, and the law was brought together in a convenient and easily accessible form, while the actual procedure in lunacy was modified, and, in some degree, assimilated to the modern English law on the subject. An Act which had been long under the consideration of the Government of India, but which it was left to Lord Hardinge's administration to place on the Statute-book was the Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act of 1912 (VIII of 1912). For the first time provision was made for a close time, and it is hoped that the provisions of this Act will operate to preserve many rare and interesting species of wild birds and animals which were in danger of extinction, and will prevent the wasteful and murderous destruction of game, which had become a serious scandal in some parts of India. Two consolidating and amending Acts of administrative importance were also passed, namely, the Official Trustees Act of 1913 (II of 1913), and the Administrator-General's Act of 1913 (III of 1913). These public functionaries, who had previously been remunerated by fees, were created corporations sole with perpetual succession, and the responsibility of the individual gave place to the responsibility of the Government. The Acts have been in force for too short a time to permit of any appreciation of the actual results of the change, but there is every reason to hope that it is one which will be of considerable benefit to that section of the public which has dealings with the officials in question. In both Acts opportunity was taken to insert provisions which will enable the Government of India to divest itself of the direct control over these officials, and to that extent the Acts were measures of decentralization. The general question of decentralization was dealt with in the Decentralization Act of 1914 (IV of 1914), which gave effect to many of the recommendations of the Decentralization Commission in so far as they relate to Acts of the Governor General in Council. The great increase in volume and importance of motor traffic led to the Indian Motor Vehicles Act of 1914 (VIII of 1914). Prior to that enactment the law on the subject was to be found scattered over many Provincial Acts, and there was no Imperial Act dealing with the question. The measure is mainly a consolidation of the Provincial enactments with wide rule-making powers, which enable the necessary provisions to be made to suit local conditions. It repealed and

incorporated the Motor Vehicles International Circulation Act of 1912 (XII of 1912), which had been rendered necessary by the adherence of the Government of India to the International Convention on this subject. A piece of useful consolidation was undertaken when the law relating to loans to local authorities came under amendment. By the Local Authorities Loans Act of 1914 (IX of 1914), no less than eight previous Acts were consolidated.

Criminal Law.

The Criminal Law was strengthened by the enactment of the Indian Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1913 (VIII of 1913). The Indian Penal Code of 1860 (Act XLV of 1860), did not constitute criminal conspiracy a substantive offence, and this defect had become a practical danger owing to an outbreak of conspiracies of a revolutionary character. By the Act in question the English law of conspiracy was introduced into this country subject to the enactment of safeguards to prevent ill-considered prosecutions.

The Government of India have long had under consideration the question of the possibility of extending the Criminal Law so as to afford additional protection to minors, and particularly to female minors. The introduction by two non-official Members (Messrs. Madge and Dadabhoy) of Bills seeking to amend the law in this direction gave rise to the hope that the present state of public opinion in this country would support any such change. The private Bills in question were not proceeded with, owing to the fact that the gentlemen who introduced them ceased to be members of the Governor General's Council. The Government, however, took the opportunity of embodying the more practical provisions contained in these private Bills in a Government measure, which was introduced in September, 1913, as a Bill further to amend the Indian Penal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, for the purpose of affording greater protection to minors. The Bill was circulated to Local Governments, and elicited a considerable measure of support, but when its provisions were considered in Select Committee, the fact was elicited that there was great diversity of opinion among non-officials. The further progress of the Bill had unfortunately to be postponed owing to the general decision of the Government of India not to take up controversial measures during the continuance of the War. Similarly, a Bill to amend the Criminal Procedure Code of 1898 (Act V of 1898), which had not been revised since 1898, was introduced in March, 1913, and circulated for opinion, but the measure has not been further proceeded with for the same reason.

Army Act.

The Indian Articles of War, 1869 (Act V of 1869), which had frequently been amended, were originally passed in the year 1869, and the whole law relating to discipline in the Indian Army was in need of a general revision. This duty was undertaken and the result placed upon the Statute-book as the Indian Army Act of 1911 (VIII of 1911), and this measure again effected a considerable amount of consolidation, as the law previously contained in nine Acts was brought together.

Aircraft legislation.

Although not mainly due to military considerations, the Indian Airships Act of 1911 (XVII of 1911), may here be conveniently referred to. This was the first step towards the control of aerial traffic in this country. The rapid development of aeronautics necessitated the amendment of the law then enacted which was effected by the Indian Aircraft (Amendment) Act of 1914 (XVI of 1914)—a measure more especially directed to the control of aircraft from the military point of view.

War measures.

The mention of this measure conveniently leads on to the consideration of the very important legislative measures which were enacted consequent on the outbreak of the great European War. Much of this legislation was, in the first instance, undertaken by Ordinance of the Governor General, and not by Act of his Legislative Council. The Governor General is, by virtue of section 23 of the Indian Councils Act of 1861, now section 72 of the Government of India Act, 1915 (5 & 6 Geo. V, c. 61), given the power in an emergency to legislate by Ordinance, and Ordinances so made, although limited in duration to a period of six months, have the same effect during that period as Acts passed in the Governor General's Legislative Council. This power has, in the past, been sparingly exercised, and from the date the Indian Councils Act of 1861 came into force until August, 1914, the power had only been exercised.

on seven occasions. The necessity of a power of this nature was clearly demonstrated on the outbreak of the war, and Lord Hardinge has freely used the provision in question to meet one of the greatest emergencies that has occurred, or is likely to occur, in the history of this country. On the 7th August, 1914, or three days after the outbreak of war, the Indian Naval and Military News (Emergency) Ordinance of 1914 (I of 1914) was issued. It was obviously essential that power should be taken to control the publication of naval and military news and information, and that power was conferred by the Ordinance in question. The decision to despatch Indian troops to assist in belligerent operations in France and other parts of the Empire rendered it necessary to take power to seize ships for the service of the Crown, and this was effected by the Impressment of Vessels Ordinance of 1914 (II of 1914), which was passed on the 14th August of that year. On the 20th August, the Foreigners Ordinance of 1914 (III of 1914) conferred essential powers on the Executive to deal with aliens of all classes. The Indian Volunteers Ordinance of 1914 (IV of 1914) declared the law applicable to volunteers on actual military service; and the Ingress into India Ordinance, 1914 (V of 1914), passed on the 5th September of that year, gave power to the Executive to control persons entering British India after the commencement of the Ordinance. Ordinances Nos. VI, VII and VIII of 1914 dealt with the difficult question of trading with the enemy. Ordinance No VI—the Commercial Intercourse with Enemies Ordinance, 1914—made punishable, in like manner as an offence under section 121 of the Indian Penal Code, the financial and other dealings with hostile States, while it also provided a penalty for the breach in this country of any Royal Proclamation for the time being in force relating to trade or commercial intercourse. The other two Ordinances amended the Foreigners Ordinance of 1914, and enabled the commercial transactions of foreigners in this country to be subjected to the control of Government. It was by orders made in pursuance of the powers conferred by this Ordinance that the trade and other commercial transactions in this country of subjects of States at war with His Majesty were regulated. A further important provision enabled corporate bodies and associations of which any subject of a hostile State had, at the outbreak of war, been a member to be controlled. The law on the same subject was expanded by the Enemy Trading Act of 1915 (XIV of 1915). The Articles of Commerce Ordinance of 1914 (IX of 1914) was directly due to the great rise in the price of foodstuffs, and gave general power to obtain information as to stocks of articles of commerce and to enable possession to be taken of such stocks, if unreasonably withheld from the market. Further legislation in the Council itself was necessary to secure that the provisions of these Ordinances were given extended duration in point of time, and this was effected by the Emergency Legislation Continuance Act of 1915 (I of 1915), which received the assent of the Governor General on the 12th January, 1915. By this measure the Ordinances referred to above were kept in force during the continuance of the War, and for a period of six months thereafter. Since the passing of that Act, three other Ordinances have been passed, one of which has since been repealed, the amendment which it made in the Indian Paper Currency Act of 1910 (II of 1910) having been effected by the Indian Paper Currency (Temporary Amendment) Act of 1915 (V of 1915). The second Ordinance, which has now been re-enacted with slight changes as the Indian Soldiers (Litigation) Act of 1915 (XII of 1915), was directed to the protection of the interests of Indian soldiers whilst serving under War conditions.

The third Ordinance, the Defence of India Ordinance, 1915, was issued on the 10th November, 1915, and amended the Defence of India (Criminal Law Amendment) Act of 1915, by the addition of certain clauses under which the Governor General in Council can make rules empowering Government to take possession of, and regulate and control, any factory, workshop, mine or other industrial concern, for the manufacture of any article which can be utilized in the prosecution of the present War.

In March, 1915, the Defence of India (Criminal Law Amendment) Act of 1915 (IV of 1915) was passed. The first part of the Act gives the Governor General in Council very wide rule-making powers for the purpose of securing

the public safety and the defence of British India, and as to the powers and duties of public servants and other persons in furtherance of that purpose. The powers taken are very much on the lines of those which the English Government took by the Defence of the Realm Act and its subsequent amendments. The second part of the Act does not apply unless specially extended, but, when extended, allows certain classes of heinous crimes to be tried by a Special Tribunal composed of three Commissioners, of whom at least two must be persons with judicial experience or possessing other legal qualifications. Other provisions secure that the proceedings of Commissioners will not be unduly delayed, and, in general, are directed to the procuring of a speedy and final trial when the conditions of any part of the country require such a course. This part of the Act has been extended to certain parts of the country where special conditions existed, and has enabled a large number of cases to be disposed of with advantage to the State and with the minimum of detention under trial to the persons concerned. Another small War measure was the Indian Patents and Designs (Temporary Rules) Act of 1915 (VI of 1915), which enables the Governor General in Council to deal with patents or licenses where the person entitled to the benefit thereof is the subject of a State at war with His Majesty.

Minor measures.

In the foregoing very brief summary of the legislative activities of the Government of India during the period under review, attention has only been called to the more prominent measures. A number of other useful but minor legislative enactments were placed upon the Statute-book during the same period. It will be sufficient to mention the following by name. The Seditious Meetings Act, 1911 (X of 1911), the Indian Post Office (Amendment) Act, 1912 (III of 1912), the Presidency Small Cause Courts (Amendment) Act, 1912 (IX of 1912), the White Phosphorus Matches Prohibition Act, 1913 (V of 1913), the Destructive Insects and Pests Act, 1914 (II of 1914), and the Indian Telegraph (Amendment) Act, 1914 (VII of 1914).

Repealing and Amending Acts.

One of the duties of the Legislative Department is the pruning of the Statute-book, and this duty was not neglected during Lord Hardinge's administration. Three Repealing and Amending Acts—or, as they would be called in England, Statute Law Revision Acts—were passed, being Acts X and XVII of 1914 and Act XI of 1915, and, in addition to the measures specifically referred to, consolidation was undertaken, whenever possible, in order that the law might be made more concise and accessible.

Private Bills.

Apart from Bills introduced by the Government, five Bills were introduced by non-official Members of the Legislative Council during the period under review. Allusion has already been made to two of these; and of the remaining three, two did not proceed further than a motion for reference to Select Committee which was negatived. They were, a Bill introduced by the Hon'ble Babu Bhupendranath Basu to amend the Special Marriage Act of 1872, and a Bill introduced by the late Mr. Gokhale to make better provision for the extension of elementary education throughout India. The remaining Bill which was introduced by the Hon'ble Mr. Jinnah to define the rights of Muhammadans to make settlements of property by way of *wakf* in favour of their families and descendants, was finally passed into law as Act VI of 1913.

Regulations.

The Governor General in Council possesses the power of legislating in certain areas by Regulations made under section 1 of the Government of India Act, 1870 (33 Vict., c. 3), now section 71 of the Government of India Act, 1915, (5 & 6 Geo. v, c. 61). This power was exercised on nineteen occasions during Lord Hardinge's administration. The Ajmer Talukdars Loan Regulation, 1911 (II of 1911), provided for the grant of loans to indebted Talukdars in Ajmer. The Hazara Forest Regulation, 1911 (III of 1911), was an amending and consolidating Regulation dealing with forests in the Hazara district. The Laccadive Islands and Minicoy Regulation, 1912 (I of 1912), provided a simple Civil and Criminal Code for these remote possessions of the Crown. The British Baluchistan Laws Regulation, 1913 (II of 1913), consolidated and amended the Regulations declaring the law in force in British Baluchistan, and brought the law on the subject together in an accessible form; and the same

was done for the Angul district by the Angul Laws Regulation, 1913 (III of 1913). The Coorg Noxious Weeds Regulation, 1914 (I of 1914), was rendered necessary by the spread in Coorg of the *lantana* plant which seriously threatened cultivation in that part of India.

The Governor General in Council also has legislative powers in those areas outside British India in which the Crown possesses jurisdiction. These powers are exercised in virtue of the Indian (Foreign Jurisdiction) Order in Council, 1902. For some years past, endeavours have been made in this Department to codify and bring together in a convenient form the law relating to these areas. Sir John Macpherson made a valuable collection of this class of law, in his "British Enactments in Force in Native States," which was first published in the year 1890. It has been revised on several occasions, and during Lord Hardinge's administration was entirely recast by Mr. O. V. Bosanquet, C.S.I., of the Political Department, who was placed on special duty for the purpose. He worked throughout in consultation with this Department, and by a series of consolidating notifications on the lines of those issued of late years was enabled to present this branch of the law in a far more compact and convenient manner than had previously been the case. His work has rendered the task of those who have to administer, and of those who have to obey, these enactments far easier than was the case in the past, as the law is for the first time readily accessible.

WORK OTHER THAN LEGISLATION IN THE IMPERIAL COUNCIL.

Many of the debates in the Imperial Council on Resolutions relating to matters of public interest were of an instructive and interesting nature, and the opportunity so afforded for the interchange of views between the Executive Government and non-official Additional Members was of great value. Even when the actual Resolution was rejected or withdrawn, the ventilation of the subject secured by the discussion went far to meet the wishes of the member who had initiated the debate. Among the most interesting Resolutions moved in Council, taking them chronologically, were the following:—

The late Mr. Gokhale, whose premature death has been so generally deplored, on the 27th February, 1912, moved a Resolution recommending that steps should be taken to bring district administration into closer touch with the people by creating district Councils with advisory functions whom the Collector should ordinarily be bound to consult in all important matters.

The debate elicited considerable difference of opinion among the non-official members, and after an animated discussion the Resolution, which was opposed on behalf of Government by the Hon'ble Sir Reginald Craddock, was rejected.

The same gentleman on 4th March, 1912, moved a Resolution recommending that steps should be taken to prohibit the recruitment of Indian labourers under contract of indenture, whether for employment at home or in any British Colony. This Resolution led to a most interesting debate, but Government were unable to accept it.

Another Resolution of which Mr. Gokhale had also given notice, relating to the treatment of Indians in South Africa, was withdrawn in consequence of the deputation of Sir Benjamin Robertson to South Africa. The Viceroy subsequently made an important announcement on the subject at the Council meeting on the 17th March, 1914, and indicated the measures that had been taken by the South African Government to solve the difficulties that had arisen in regard to Indians in South Africa.

A Resolution moved by the Hon'ble Sir G. M. Chitnavis on 25th February, 1914, recommended the appointment of a Committee to inquire into the causes of the numerous bank failures about that time, and to report what measures were desirable to regulate and control banks and banking business in India. The Resolution was withdrawn by permission after an important debate.

The opening of the new Council Chamber at Viceregal Lodge, Simla, on 8th September, 1914, was the occasion of a remarkable demonstration of

loyalty when Sir G. M. Chitnavis moved a Resolution that “. . . the Members of this Council as voicing the feeling that animates the whole of the people of India desire to give expression to their feelings of unswerving loyalty and enthusiastic devotion to their King-Emperor, and an assurance of their unflinching support to the British Government. . . .” The Resolution was supported in eloquent terms by a large number of non-official members, and His Excellency announced that he accepted it on behalf of Government and would have great pleasure in telegraphing its terms to the Secretary of State and in asking Lord Crewe to lay it at the foot of the Throne of the King-Emperor.

The Hon'ble Mr. M. S. Das, on 24th February, 1915, moved another loyal Resolution which was unanimously adopted by the Council and accepted by His Excellency on behalf of Government and communicated to the Secretary of State.

On 22nd September, 1915, the Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Muhammad Shafi moved a Resolution of very great interest recommending that a representation be sent through the Right Hon'ble the Secretary of State to His Majesty's Government, urging that India should in future be officially represented in the Imperial Conference. In reply, His Excellency announced that the Government of India gladly accepted the Resolution which had their warmest sympathy, and would comply with its recommendations, if supported by the Council as a whole. Lord Hardinge took the opportunity of giving the Council an outline of the previous history and constitution of the Imperial Conferences in the past, and further expressed his personal satisfaction that it was in his power to accept the Resolution which he described as “very moderate and statesmanlike.”

After a debate in which most of the non-official members took part the Resolution was put and unanimously accepted.

Local legislation.

Although the Legislative Department of the Government of India is in no way responsible for the drafting of Bills in local Councils, all legislative measures of this class are subjected to examination in this Department, both before they are introduced in the local Council, and before they receive the assent of His Excellency. This class of work is naturally increasing in view of the increase in the number of these minor legislatures. During Lord Hardinge's administration 137 Bills of local Councils received the assent of the Governor General.

Lord Hardinge, in the exercise of the power conferred by section 40 of the Indian Councils Act, 1861, refused assent to the Orissa Tenancy Bill, 1912, which was passed at a meeting of the Bengal Legislative Council on 27th March, 1912, four days before Bihar and Orissa became a province separate from Bengal. A Bill on similar lines and under the same title was re-introduced in, and passed by, the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council in 1913, and assented to by His Excellency.

Advisory work.

Turning to the work of the Legislative Department which is not directly connected with legislation, the number of references made on legal points showed a continuous tendency to increase during the years under review. The gradual increase is due to the general increase of work in the Government of India and to the tendency, which is daily growing, of regulating administrative matters by statutory rules and orders. The unusual increase in 1914 and 1915 can doubtless be referred to the fact that the war raised many legal points of great difficulty and urgency on which the Legislative Department advised without too strictly enforcing the ordinary rules of procedure. References of this class were often of so urgent and important a nature, that it would have been impossible to have required the Administrative Departments to pursue the usual course and make a reference to the Law Officers of the Crown.

Publications.

The following important publications were issued by this Department during Lord Hardinge's administration :—

1. Index to Indian Statutes, being Volume II of the Chronological Tables and Index to the Indian Statutes.
2. A Collection of Statutes relating to India, Volumes I and II.

3. The Unrepealed General Acts of the Governor General in Council, Volume VII (1909-13).
4. The Baluchistan Code, 3rd Edition.
5. Legislation and Orders relating to the War.
6. The Assam Code, in two volumes.
7. General Statutory Rules and Orders in four volumes.

During five years of the period under review Sir Ali Imam presided as Law Member over the Legislative Department, and he was assisted by able coadjutors as Secretaries of the Department in the late Sir John Macpherson, Sir W. Vincent and Mr. Muddiman. Being necessarily brought into close contact with the non-official members of the Viceroy's Legislative Council, the maintenance of cordial and amicable relations with them is of first and supreme importance, and it is pleasant to record the fact that personal and official relations between the Legislative Department and the non-official members of the Council have invariably been those of friendly and helpful co-operation.

VIII

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

THE period under review will always be memorable for the impetus given during its course to education. Simultaneously with the Viceroy's assumption of office there came into being a new department in the Government of India. This, known as the Department of Education, was charged with the supervision of education, sanitation, local self-government, ecclesiastical matters, archæology, museums, books, libraries and other minor matters. The liberation of these subjects from their combination with a host of others dealt with in the Home Department secured them an importance and a measure of attention which it was otherwise impossible that they should attain. The first member to preside over this department was Sir Harcourt Butler, who remained the permanent incumbent of the post for nearly the full five years. At the close of the spring session of 1915, after he had been selected as prospective Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, he proceeded on six months' leave, and his duties were undertaken first by Mr. C. H. A. Hill and then by Mr. L. C. Porter. Sir Harcourt Butler returned to the department in September of that year and conducted the Benares Hindu University Bill through its final stages in the Legislative Council. At the end of October he proceeded to Burma and Sir Sankaran Nair took over the duties of Member for Education on the 2nd November 1915. Incidentally to the formation of the department in November 1910, the post of Director General of Education was abolished. Instead, a Secretary and a Joint Secretary were appointed, the latter specially charged with education. A general policy having been formulated and grants allotted for its execution, it was felt that personal discussion with Local Governments regarding further progress and development would be of assistance both to them and to the Government of India. The post of Joint Secretary was accordingly abolished in 1915, and in its place a post of Educational Commissioner was created with functions similar to those which had been possessed by the Director General.

During almost the whole of this period the duties of Joint Secretaries to the Education Department were very ably performed by Mr. Porter, C.S.I., and Mr. Sharp, C.S.I., of whom the latter was specially charged with the branch of the department relating to education.

The formation of this department was symptomatic of a more liberal policy towards the administrative matters which it embraced and of a recognition of their importance. This attitude was firmly maintained during the years 1910-1916. The figures of increase, whether of expenditure or of pupils, are impressive. The prevailing policy was widened and modified in several important particulars. Popular enthusiasm was evoked and considerable private endowments were secured.

EDUCATION.

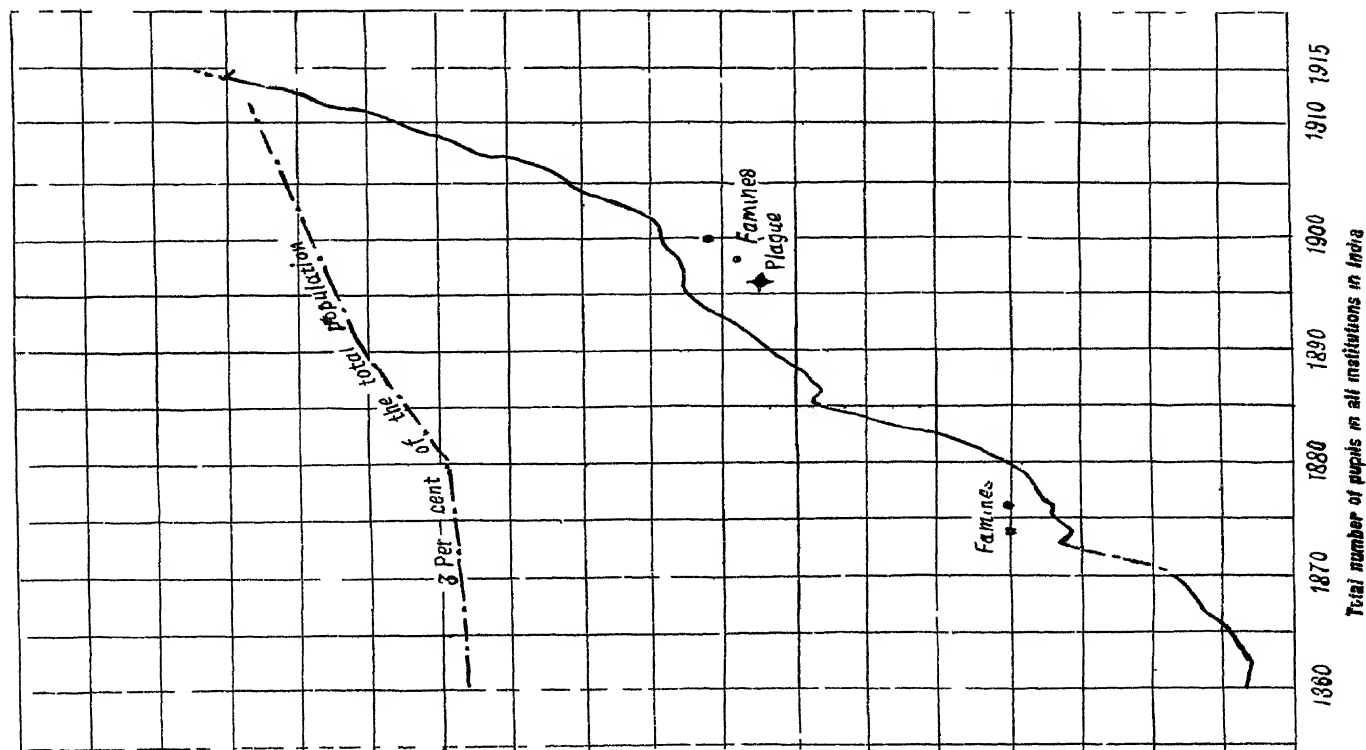
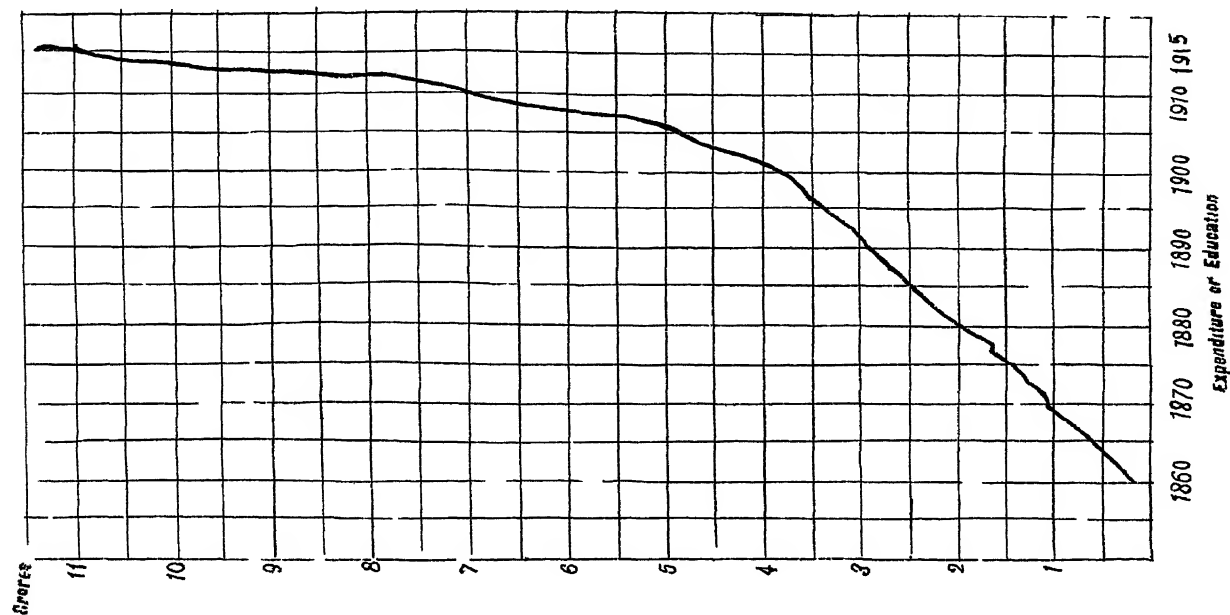
Statistical progress.

From 1911 to 1915, additions of £3,227,000 (Rs. 4,84,17,000) non-recurring, and of £826,000 (Rs. 1,24,00,000) recurring were made available for education from Imperial revenues and allotted to Local Governments. Between 1910 and 1915 the annual expenditure rose from £4,578,400 (Rs. 6,86,76,000) to £7,278,000 (Rs. 10,91,70,000). For reasons explained in the next paragraph we should add to the last figure about 30 lakhs for certain Native States now excluded; so that the present total is for purposes of comparison about £7,478,000. Of this increase amounting to nearly 3 millions sterling, over 1½ millions was contributed from public funds. Of this increase, amounting to about two and three quarters million sterling, over one and three quarters was contributed from public funds.

This liberal policy was accompanied by a large expansion in the number of pupils. The figures available for comparison are those of March 1910 and March 1915, since at the time of writing, the year 1915-16 is only just closing. In 1910 the total of those at school or college was 6,203,305 or 17·1 per cent. of those of a school-going age. In 1915 it was 7,448,419 or 20·4 per cent.—namely 33·9 per cent. in the case of boys and 6·3 per cent. in the case of girls. While the percentages are correct (being calculated on the approximately correct totals of population) the actual increase shown is slightly misleading and should be greater than stated. For many years the anomalous system had been pursued of including among the educational figures for British India those of

certain Native States. In 1915, with a view to producing a more consistent set of figures, this system was abolished and the returns were confined to those for British India. Hence the school population as shown in the returns for 1914 is actually greater than that shown in 1915, being 7,518,147 against 7,448,419. The reason is that the figures for 1914 included 107,759 square miles of territory, 12,164,874 .of population, and 233,399 of pupils in public institutions alone (all belonging to Native States), which are excluded from the figures for 1915. With the addition of these figures and of a rough calculation for the number of pupils in private institutions throughout Native States, and even allowing for no expansion in those States during the last year, we may safely put the figure (for purposes of comparison) at about 7,800,000 pupils.

These increases are shown in the diagrams below.



An increase in five years of two and three quarters million sterling to the annual educational expenditure and of one and a half millions to the school population is without parallel in India, so far as records are available. Combined with the figures of the sanitary grants, the increased expenditure is signal proof of a new era in Indian administration.

Progress in policy.

In addition to numerical progress, a solid advance was made in educational policy. This was not attempted until a series of conferences in 1911 and 1912 had taken the public into confidence in a manner not previously attempted. After this had been done, various reforms were promulgated, the ideas of many of which had for some time past been current in an unformulated condition. These were collected together in a resolution, dated the 21st February 1913, which has been published in book form as "Indian Educational Policy, 1913." It is impossible here to go over all the points of this exhaustive document. Allusion will be made to some of them in the succeeding pages. The chief matters enunciated were the following. The old system of affiliating universities, which had now become unwieldy, was to be gradually broken up into smaller units and strengthened, so far as possible, by the creation of degree-giving centres of learning where teaching should supersede examination and an academic atmosphere would become a reality. At the same time liberal grants to existing universities afforded a basis for research and higher instruction. The secondary school, overshadowed by an oppressive matriculation, was to be given a larger measure of elasticity and a more varied curriculum leading up to a school leaving certificate. Primary education was to receive a large expansion, made feasible by the allotment of liberal grants; and the meagre prospects of the village schoolmaster were to be improved (and indeed have already been improved) by a substantial increase of pay. Oriental learning was to be encouraged. Special impetus was given to the education of girls and of Muhammadans. Insistence was urged upon educational hygiene, medical inspection of schools and scholars, the importance of hostels and a general broadening of instruction on physical and moral as well as intellectual lines. Local Governments have responded by the creation of special staffs for medical inspection, etc. As a minor point it may be mentioned that the rates of scholarships (other than technical scholarships) tenable abroad were substantially raised and now amount to £250 a year in cases where the scholars reside at a college at Oxford or Cambridge, while a new scholarship, tenable abroad, was created for Indian girls.

The succeeding paragraphs describe briefly the developments which took place during the years under review.

Universities and colleges.

The period was marked by a noteworthy growth of activity among these bodies, of the number of students and of the money expended. The number of students in arts and professional colleges rose from 29,474 to 50,579, and the expenditure increased from Rs. 60,28,912 to Rs. 91,16,147. The universities continued to progress along the lines formulated in the Indian Universities Act of 1904. But that Act had not attempted to change the admittedly imperfect system of federal universities; and, though it had prescribed, it could not stimulate, university teaching. The Government of India decided on a bold advance along these two lines.

The federal system (deliberately copied from the model of the London University) had proved popular and in some respects suitable in a land of great distances and difficult communications. To the eye of the educationist it has many defects; to the eye of the public it is necessarily uninspiring. This latter characteristic (probably combined with a desire to break away from the beaten track and to secure easier standards) led a section of the Muhammadan community early in 1911 to enlist support and collect funds for a Moslem University with the famous college at Aligarh as its nucleus. The movement, headed by His Highness the Agha Khan, contemplated the affiliation of colleges in different provinces. The Government of India, when approached by the promoters, supported the scheme. Perhaps partly owing to the disallowance of the affiliation proposals and without doubt largely owing to the unrest caused in the Moslem world by the Balkan wars and the participation of Turkey in the great war, the scheme passed into abeyance, though it was by no means relinquished. Meantime, spurred by this example, the Hindus

started a scheme (built on the fragments of earlier and more nebulous proposals) for a similar university at Benares in connection with the Central Hindu College. They accepted (though not willingly) the restriction of the university's influence to that city and a reasonable measure of Government control. The bill for the incorporation of this university was introduced into the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1915. In September 1915, the bill was referred to a select committee and was finally passed on the 1st October 1915. Both these schemes had a denominational basis and included the study of theology as well as of Arabic or Sanskrit lore. But they also proposed to open their doors to all comers and offered a full secular course. At the present moment the Mussalmans are watching the progress of the Benares Hindu University before resuscitating their own scheme.

But Government also initiated schemes of its own. The overgrown size of the Calcutta University and the undesirability of leaving Calcutta, with its temptations and its difficulties in the matter of residence and accommodation, as the sole university centre for Bengal, pointed to Dacca as a suitable place for initiating the experiment of a type of university new to India, and incidentally provided with special attractions for a mainly Muhammadan population. An elaborate scheme for a self-contained residential and teaching university at that place received the approval of the Secretary of State and will, it is hoped, soon come into being. Other schemes are in progress for universities at Patna, Rangoon and Nagpur. In these the main motive is the breaking up of excessively large university areas and the identification of university and provincial spheres of jurisdiction, though here also the idea of developing along novel lines is present.

The Government of India have also made efforts to develop existing universities, especially as teaching bodies. For this purpose they have given to these bodies Rs. 43,00,000 non-recurring and Rs. 2,82,000 recurring. This has enabled the universities to obtain expert advisers, to found chairs for post-graduate study and to erect much-needed buildings. The chief recipient was the University of Calcutta, which obtained Rs. 22,00,000 non-recurring and (including the grant given during the time of Lord Minto) Rs. 1,28,000 recurring. Sir T. N. Palit and Sir Rash Behari Ghosh added an endowment of 25 lakhs. The erection of the Hardinge Hostel for students of the University Law College and the establishment of several permanent chairs (among which is a Hardinge Professorship of Higher Mathematics) were developments in the right direction. The Bombay University moved more cautiously and obtained the expert aid of Sir Alfred Hopkinson. A scheme was completed for the establishment of a Royal Institute of Science in Bombay city, towards which private benefactors contributed 26 lakhs; and a College of Commerce was opened. In the Universities of Madras, the Punjab and Allahabad, various advances have been made—the foundation of chairs, the engagement of temporary lecturers and advisers from England, the erection and equipment of libraries and other buildings, etc.

A significant incident was the establishment of the Islamia College at Peshawar erected and maintained from local contributions and liberal grants from Government. It is situated in sight of the Khyber pass, is frequented by students both from within and from without British territory and is a signal indication of the influence of the *pax Britannica* among the border tribes.

As Chancellor of the Calcutta University, Lord Hardinge attended four convocations and addressed three of them. At the convocation of March 1915, he announced a grant of 10 lakhs to be utilised by the university in the erection of hostels for its affiliated colleges in Calcutta.

The Government of India had already in 1906 suggested improvement along certain general lines in the prevailing systems of secondary education. Most of the Local Governments had accordingly framed schemes of development. Several of these schemes were now either financed, approved or otherwise furthered. In Bombay, the United Provinces, and the Punjab, the pay of teachers was substantially improved. New and elaborate schemes received approval. The number of boy pupils rose from 783,840 to 1,011,203 and expenditure increased from Rs. 1,60,53,670 to Rs. 2,43,28,049.

In 1915 a superior school for sons of the well-to-do was opened in Bengal. It was provisionally located at Hastings House in Alipore, which was lent by the Government of India for this purpose. There is a movement for a similar institution to serve Upper India.

Primary education.

The problem of primary education is very different from that of secondary. This type of education does not in the main form an avenue to professional employment, and hence the same urgent demand does not arise for its expansion from the classes who principally benefit by it. But, from various motives, pleas are from time to time put forward by members of the middle class for free and compulsory elementary education. The question was brought up in the Imperial Legislative Council towards the close of Lord Minto's Viceroyalty. That of compulsion was revived in the form of a private bill by the late Mr. Gokhale in 1911. The bill was lost by a large majority in 1912. The official opposition to it was based mainly on the grounds that there was no popular demand for the measure, that the Local Governments were not in favour of it, and that the weight, though not the majority, of non-official opinion was hostile, while the idea of additional local taxation was generally disapproved. The bill was undoubtedly premature.

Instead, the Government decided to proceed along lines already accepted, but to quicken the pace and to improve as well as to expand. In the educational resolution the Government of India re-stated its policy in the following words : "The propositions that illiteracy must be broken down and that primary education has, in the present circumstances of India, a predominant claim upon the public funds, represent accepted policy no longer open to discussion. For financial and administrative reasons of decisive weight the Government of India have refused to recognise the principle of compulsory education ; but they desire the widest possible extension of primary education on a voluntary basis. As regards free elementary education the time has not yet arrived when it is practicable to dispense wholly with fees without injustice to the many villages, which are waiting for the provision of schools. The fees derived from those pupils who can pay them are now devoted to the maintenance and expansion of primary education, and a total remission of fees would involve to a certain extent a more prolonged postponement of the provision of schools in villages without them. In some provinces elementary education is already free and in the majority of provinces liberal provision is already made for giving free elementary instruction to those boys whose parents cannot afford to pay fees. Local Governments have been requested to extend the application of the principle of free elementary education amongst the poorer and more backward sections of the population. Further than this it is not possible at present to go." The resolution also stated that it was the desire and hope of the Government of India to see in the not distant future some 91,000 primary public schools added to the 100,000 which already existed for boys and to double the 4½ millions of pupils who were then receiving instruction in them.

In pursuance of this policy, grants of Rs. 94,85,000 non-recurring and Rs. 49,35,000 recurring were given by the Government of India for the improvement and expansion of elementary education. During the period, boys' schools have increased from 107,463 to 116,012, pupils in them from 4,168,246 to 4,888,019, and total expenditure from Rs. 1,65,32,568 to Rs. 2,30,51,184. The salaries of teachers have been enhanced in most of the provinces and facilities for training have been expanded—both most necessary reforms. Among details to which special attention has been given may be mentioned the education of children employed in factories or brought up on tea gardens.

Professional and technical education.

The Government of India have given considerable grants for the training of teachers. The number of trained teachers has increased from 57,319 to 78,255. Law colleges have been improved, and a new college was opened at Gauhati. A fifth Medical College, King George's Medical College, Lucknow, was opened in 1912. It is equipped in a thoroughly up-to-date manner, is doing admirable work and fills a long felt want. The course of study is designed to satisfy the requirements of the M.B. examination, Allahabad. A School of Tropical Medicine was built in Calcutta. This is intended to afford post-graduate training in tropical medicine on lines somewhat similar to those of the schools of tropical medicine in England ; of

still greater importance, however, are the facilities that it will offer for research work, in material for which Calcutta is singularly rich. In Bombay considerable sums were expended upon the Bacteriological Laboratory at Parel to enable it to function also as a post-graduate school of tropical medicine and hygiene, and a College of Physicians and Surgeons was established; the college grants licenses and diplomas to college students who are not up to university standard. A similar body designated the State Medical Faculty has been founded in Bengal. Both these institutions are intended to provide general practitioners with diplomas which will take the place of the L.M.S., a qualification that has now been abandoned by all the recognised universities except that of Madras. Medical Registration Acts were enforced in Bombay, Bengal, Madras and Burma; similar measures for the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces and the Punjab are now under consideration. Much needed improvements were effected in the training of Military Assistant Surgeons.

Earnest attention was devoted to the question of medical training for women. The Lady Hardinge Medical College, which is being built in Delhi, and which was opened in February 1916, is the most important achievement in this connection, and it can look forward with confidence to contributing largely to the welfare of India.

The demand continued to be expressed for increased facilities in technical and industrial education. But, though much care was bestowed on the subject, though the Government of India gave generous grants (including a single non-recurring grant in 1911 which alone amounted to nearly 16 lakhs) for this purpose and though new institutions were opened, there is not much alacrity displayed in utilising these opportunities save where the education naturally leads to employment under Government or local bodies. The principal event was the opening of the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore in July 1911, with departments of general, organic and applied chemistry and electrical technology. Unfortunate differences occurred between the governing body and certain members of the staff; but the Government of India, in addition to its original contribution of Rs. 87,500 a year, made special grants to the institute of Rs. 4,00,000. Another important incident was the renewal to the Secretary of State of the request (which he had previously rejected) for the establishment of a Technological Institute at Cawnpore. On this occasion a more modest scheme was proposed. It was sanctioned; but difficulties have arisen about the recruitment of suitable staff; and the Government of the United Provinces is generally reconsidering its policy in the matter of industrial education. Two enquiries of a general nature were set on foot. In England a committee presided over by Sir Theodore Morison considered the conditions under which the ten annual State technical scholarships are held outside India. In India Lieutenant-Colonel Atkinson and Mr. Dawson made an enquiry as to the means for bringing technical institutions into closer touch and more practical relations with employers of labour. The conclusion arrived at was that there is practically no opening for those who possess higher theoretical training, but that there is ample employment for the practically trained. Gratifying assurances of assistance were given by employers.

Special prominence was given to the subject of agricultural education at the meeting of the Board of Agriculture held at Coimbatore in December 1913 and extensive changes were carried out in the curricula of the Cawnpore, Coimbatore, Lyallpur, Nagpur and Sabour colleges. In most cases these changes took the form of dividing the three years' course formerly prescribed into two courses, a preliminary practical course lasting for two years followed by a more advanced course also of two years' duration for those capable of following it.

During the period under review, the curricula of the Punjab and Bombay veterinary colleges were revised. A post-graduate course was added in both cases and the ordinary course at the Punjab college was extended from three to four years. Important additions were made to college staffs.

A separate course of two years' duration for probationers for the Provincial Forest Service was introduced at the Forest College, Dehra Dun, in November

1912. A college for the training of rangers in southern India was opened at Coimbatore in 1912.

Oriental studies.

One of the most important reforms contemplated by the Government of India was the resuscitation of oriental learning. The centre of gravity for Sanskrit and Arabic scholarship and research had shifted to Europe. The material in India was excellent but lacked organisation. In 1911 a conference was assembled at Simla to discuss the subject. The foundation of an Oriental Research Institute was recommended, somewhat on the lines of the schools at Hanoi and Vladivostok. The scheme was laid before the Secretary of State, who took exception to the idea of locating the institution at Delhi. The Government of India were convinced that if it were situated at Calcutta or at any other centre it would assume a provincial character. Nor were they willing to provide the funds for establishing it at any of these centres. Hence the scheme fell into abeyance. In other directions, however, considerable progress was made. Special chairs for Sanskrit research were founded in most of the universities. An institution known as the Princess of Wales Saraswati Bhawan was opened at Benares in connection with the Sanskrit College. The Government of India made a special grant to the Asiatic Society of Bengal to enable it to utilise the services of Dr. L. P. Tessitori, a learned Italian, in editing the bardic chronicles of Rajputana.

Education of girls and special classes.

In 1912 the Government of India gave a grant of 10 lakhs recurring for the education of girls and women. Considerable non-recurring grants were also made. The number under instruction increased from 830,175 to 1,126,650. Various schemes were framed in different provinces. The Government of India emphasised the fact that the immediate problem in the education of girls is one of social development. "The existing customs and ideas opposed to the education of girls (said the educational resolution) will require different handling in different parts of India." Hence the Government of India hesitated to lay down general lines of policy which might only hamper Local Governments and preferred to invite schemes. They suggested, however, that the education of girls should be practical, that it should be differentiated from that of boys, that special attention should be paid to hygiene and that the services of women should be more freely enlisted.

Improvements were carried out in the Chiefs' colleges and a scheme was set on foot for a higher college, probably to be situated at Delhi. The existing colleges are in reality schools, and higher (or truly collegiate) classes are held only at the Mayo College. Two meetings of Chiefs, political officers and educationists were held at Delhi to further the scheme. On each occasion Lord Hardinge delivered the opening address. Rs. 11,65,700 have already been collected or promised for the higher college.

The Government of India evinced their special interest in the domiciled community by assembling a large and representative conference at Simla in 1912 for the discussion of the education of Anglo-Indians. Many practical resolutions were passed and Imperial grants totalling Rs. 35,34,500 non-recurring and Rs. 7,44,900 recurring were made, which will materially assist in the working out of these schemes. During the five years under review the number of those at school increased from 32,400 to 38,674, and over 16 per cent. of the total Anglo-Indian community are now at school. Among special reforms carried out may be mentioned the improvement of the well-known Lawrence schools, established for the benefit of soldiers' children, those at Sanawar and Mount Abu by Sir Henry Lawrence before the mutiny and those at Ootacamund and Murree in his memory at the conclusion of the mutiny. These schools received respectively Imperial recurring grants of Rs. 40,000, Rs. 6,900, Rs. 15,000 and Rs. 12,400 a year. That at Murree was also thoroughly reorganised by the efforts of the Government of the Punjab. Another incident which deserves mention was the disposal of Kidderpore House near Calcutta. This had formerly been the property of Mr. Barwell; it was purchased in 1798 by the Bengal Military Orphan Society, which had been founded a few years previously to provide for the maintenance of the children of officers dying in indigent circumstances. The Society's property was subsequently handed over to Government. The wards who were accommodated in the house gradually dwindled to a small number. It had long been apparent that the property

should be put to some other use. Various methods of utilising it had been suggested. It was Lord Hardinge's wish that the object should be one not inconsistent with the existence on one portion of the property of St. Stephen's Church. The larger part of the land and the house itself were accordingly made over to the Calcutta Free School. The rest was put to other public uses. Finally it remains to say that, in 1911, the late Sir Robert Laidlaw initiated a private fund for the benefit of schools of the Protestant denominations. His own preliminary donation was £50,000. The fund now stands at £91,689.

In April 1913, the Government of India circularised the Local Governments in an important communication which analysed the reasons for the educational backwardness of the Muhammadan community and suggested remedies. The Local Governments have responded with various measures. The Government of India have given generous grants to the Islamia Colleges at Lahore and Peshawar and also to the Governments of Madras and the Central Provinces. The number of Muhammadans under instruction is now 1,725,451.

Such were the main lines along which educational progress was made during Lord Hardinge's Viceroyalty. During the concluding twenty months, the European war affected the financial position in India, and the rate of development attained during the preceding four years had to undergo some moderation. But though new grants were not forthcoming, the large recurring allotments which had already been given to the Local Governments were naturally continued, permitting a maintenance of advance, and the policy which had been decided on underwent no modification. The provincial Governments quietly pursued their programmes. The Government of India introduced, and the Legislative Council passed, an important bill which heralded in a new departure in university education. The impetus imparted by generous financial policy survived and, it may well be hoped, will prove sufficiently strong to bridge over the interval of time before fresh allotments become available. Conclusion.

SANITATION.

As in the matter of education, so in that of sanitation, a series of All-India conferences was held, at which both official and non-official opinion was represented. These took place in 1911, 1912 and 1914 at Bombay, Madras and Lucknow. The proceedings were circulated to Local Governments and also assisted the Government of India in drawing up an exhaustive resolution, which issued in May 1914 and dealt with results achieved and future policy. Commencing from the formation of the new department, Imperial grants for sanitation were distributed to the amount of £2,708,266 (Rs. 4,06,24,000) non-recurring and £368,200 (Rs. 55,23,000) recurring. These sums were mainly made over to Local Governments. Thus a great impetus was given to sanitary measures. The capital grants rendered practicable the execution of sanitary projects which a few years ago seemed beyond the limits of financial possibility. Conference and grants.

Owing to certain difficulties and in particular the divorce of research from clinical work which resulted from the separation of the offices of Director General of the Indian Medical Service and the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, the question arose whether these two posts should be reamalgamated. After full consideration with the Secretary of State, a compromise was reached, which, while retaining both offices, placed bacteriology and medical research under the Director General, but left the Sanitary Commissioner in an independent position as regards all technical sanitary matters, placing him at the same time in regard to administrative questions and matters affecting the personnel of the services in the position of a staff officer to the Director General. The sanitary services throughout the country were reorganised; decentralisation of control was effected; the staff of Deputy Sanitary Commissioners was strengthened; a trained service of municipal health officers and sanitary inspectors was formed with the aid of liberal grants from Government revenues; the higher posts were thrown open to Indians, who now occupy nine of the twenty-five appointments of Deputy Sanitary Commissioners. Seventeen appointments were added to the bacteriological department, which was thrown open to officers outside the Indian Medical Service and (for the first time) to Indians. An Indian Research Fund Association was established for "the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge Agencies.

and experimental measures generally in connection with the causation, mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases." The fund receives an annual subsidy of five lakhs. Control is vested in a Governing Body assisted by an Advisory Board. Among its activities have been a study of yellow fever and the formulation of proposals for protecting India against the danger of its introduction from the Panama Canal, anti-malarial schemes, investigations into cholera, *kala azar*, dysentery, goitre, leprosy, tuberculosis, the pharmacology of the cinchona derivatives, the prevention of plague, the bacteriological examination of water, diabetes and the bionomics of the housefly. Grants were also given to the Calcutta and Bombay Schools of Tropical Medicine and to various other projects in connection with medical and sanitary research. Finally, the Association started a successful publication—the *Indian Journal of Medical Research*.

New developments.

A new anti-rabies treatment was adopted in the Pasteur Institutes of India, and schemes for new Institutes (largely supported by private subscription) were sanctioned at Rangoon and Shillong. The former will, in addition, specialise in bacteriological and serological work, the latter in research into tropical diseases. The Government of the United Provinces introduced a scheme of travelling dispensaries for the purposes of bringing surgical and medical relief to villages and of combating malaria and plague. Itinerant dispensaries were also introduced in Madras, Bombay, Bengal and the Punjab. These have afforded relief and at the same time proved a means of educating the people in modern methods of preventing disease. Investigations into malaria were continued, malarial surveys carried out, special classes opened for instruction in malarial work, and grants-in-aid given from the Research Fund for anti-malarial projects. Against great financial and other difficulties, measures were taken to meet the increasing desire of the wealthier classes in cities to escape from insanitary surroundings. Some account of the Bombay Town-Planning Act will be given later. The Government of India are also collecting opinions on the provisions of Municipal Acts for dealing with insanitary areas, the possibility of fixing a standard of light and ventilation, the framing of adequate building regulations and the maintenance of a competent staff.

Pilgrimages.

The supervision of pilgrim traffic and of pilgrim centres is an important item of sanitary work in India. Provincial committees with the Imperial Sanitary Commissioner as President were formed for enquiry into sanitary arrangements at the chief internal pilgrim centres and a large grant has been allotted for the improvement of the famous pilgrim route to Badrinath and Kedarnath. Pilgrim centres in the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and Madras have already been visited. As regards the Haj, the Turkish Government decided in 1911 to apply their passport regulations to Indian pilgrims. As this involved a serious and unpopular tax the British Government protested, but in vain. Legislation was undertaken and is under consideration with the object of improving the conditions under which the pilgrimage is made. Steps were also successfully taken to secure some elaboration of the rules regarding ships which carry Shiah pilgrims to Basrah. To relieve the congestion in Bombay, the port of Karachi was opened to pilgrim traffic to the Hedjaz. In 1913, the Government of Bombay proposed to give a monopoly of this traffic to a firm of standing on certain conditions. Such a scheme would have been intensely unpopular; and it was not adopted. The war with Turkey gave rise to difficulties in connection with the Haj. Government did all they could to ensure the comfort of pilgrims by permitting consignments of food to be shipped to Jeddah and by other means. In the meantime intending pilgrims were warned of the dangers involved in the journey; and some of the Mussalman Chiefs strongly discouraged the pilgrimage. The Mussalmans acted with good sense in the matter and the number of pilgrims fell substantially. A constantly recurring trouble is the stranding of indigent pilgrims in the Hedjaz. So far the Government of India have refused in deference to the feelings of important sections of the Mussalman community to sanction any system involving compulsory return tickets. In 1913, local Haj Committees were established in most provinces with a view to their repatriation and for the dissemination of information regarding rates of passage, expenses, etc.; a grant was made for the repatriation of a certain number of pilgrims; a grant of one lakh was promised for the same purpose if the Mussalman community raised

an equal sum ; and, after the outbreak of war, British ships, sailing under special guarantee, brought back the majority of the pilgrims.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

The policy of the period aimed at improvement of administration in urban Policy. and rural areas and at a reasonable measure of devolution along the lines suggested by the Royal Commission on Decentralisation. It was summed up in an important resolution which issued in April 1915. The hope was there expressed that the declaration of policy would lead to progress without hampering Local Governments or fettering local self-government. "It is designed (the resolution added) to mark a definite advance in devolution and political education. His Excellency in Council trusts that it will be interpreted in the spirit in which it is framed, a spirit of prudent holdness, calculating risks but not afraid to take them in the cause of progress."

The City of Bombay Improvement Trust had been in existence since 1898. Improvements in urban areas. Up to the end of 1913-14, it had expended a sum of nearly three and three quarters million sterling on various schemes, including the development of building estates. Funds were provided from rents of vacant Government and municipal lands, from an Imperial grant and from other sources. Roads were broadened, slum-areas were abolished and accommodation was provided for the poorer classes. A draft bill is under consideration for the levy of a surtax on transfer of property with a view to increasing the resources of the Trust. In 1911, legislation was undertaken in Bengal which resulted in the formation in January 1912 of a similar Improvement Trust for Calcutta. This Trust has commenced its operations, financed through local taxation, municipal contributions, and, from Imperial revenues, through a lump grant of 50 lakhs and an annual allotment of $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs for 60 years.

The improvement of Simla had formed the object of various schemes and allotments since 1898. These however had not been fully successful, especially as regards the abolition of insanitary and congested areas. Hence the Government of India, in consultation with that of the Punjab, appointed a committee in 1914. The projects recommended in its report are under consideration. They involve an expenditure of 47.76 lakhs and, if carried out, will result in substantial improvements, sanitary and other, in the summer capital of these two Governments.

The amelioration of conditions among the half million villages of British India is largely a question of placing funds in the hands of the local authorities, *i.e.*, the rural boards. Improvements in rural areas. The main source of income possessed by these boards is a cess upon agricultural land. In Bengal, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province, a portion of this cess had been appropriated by the Local Governments. The Royal Commission had recommended the surrender of this portion to the boards. This reform was carried out in 1913, and, in order to compensate Local Governments, recurring assignments of over half a million sterling, or, to be precise, Rs. 82,33,000, were made from Imperial to provincial revenues. This relief will enable rural boards to spend larger sums on education, sanitation, public works, etc. Another measure of relief, carried through in 1914-15, was the remission of the cost to local bodies of services which could properly be performed only by Government servants. This involved an Imperial assignment of £40,000 a year, exclusive of an annual allotment of half a lakh to the Corporation of Madras for similar services. The resources of rural boards were yet further enhanced by extending to other Local Governments the permission (previously possessed by that of Madras) to empower their boards by legislation to levy a small extra land cess for the development of light railways and tramways. This measure will open up land-locked tracts and create a new source of revenue for the boards. In this connection the Government of India have approved a Bill to amend the Punjab District Boards Act.

Numerous measures of legislation were undertaken. The newly con- Legislation. stituted council of Assam passed a Local Self-Government Act, legalising the constitution and functions of local boards. It also published a draft resolution for the consolidation and improvement of the municipal law in that province.

The Government of India approved a draft municipal bill for the United Provinces, which contains various measures of decentralisation. They also generally approved an important bill to amend and consolidate the Calcutta Municipal Act, with a view to ensuring larger popular representation on the corporation, and separating the official executive authority from the elected head of the guiding and legislative body. The Punjab Municipal Act was amended with a view to promoting the efficiency of urban administration. A law was passed to provide for the framing and execution of town-planning schemes in the Bombay Presidency. A draft bill to amend the Assam Local Self-Government Act has been approved so as to provide for the construction of private tramways on public roads. Legislation is also contemplated for checking the adulteration of food and drugs—a subject which was first discussed at the sanitary conference of 1911.

Taxation.

As the result of enquiry by a committee appointed in 1908 by the Government of the United Provinces, it was decided that the collection of octroi as a means of raising municipal funds had many objections. The Government of India accepted the principle that a system of light terminal taxes (already prevalent in a few large towns) might be substituted. They insisted however on certain conditions, of which the principal was that this system should be regarded as a means of transition to a larger employment of forms of direct taxation. Terminal taxes were introduced in various towns, and negotiations are proceeding with a view to inducing railway companies to undertake the collection of the tax—a method which already prevails at certain centres and which will make for simplicity of collection.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

In 1911 an important resolution was issued on the question of the arrangements to be made for Presbyterian and Wesleyan services for troops in those military stations in India in which the only or principal church has been consecrated for Anglican services. Military stations have been placed in three classes and in certain circumstances churches and church rooms will be provided for Church of Scotland and Wesleyan services. In 1913, Bishop Lefroy, who in that year succeeded Bishop Copleston as Metropolitan in India and Ceylon, desired to reopen the question of the change of that title to Archbishop, but the Government of India after correspondence with the Secretary of State and the Local Governments decided to postpone its consideration. Assistant Bishoprics were created in Assam and in Madras. The latter (without independent jurisdiction) was held by the Reverend V. S. Azariah—the first Indian to become a Bishop of the Anglican Communion. A memorial of certain chaplains of the Churches of England and Scotland, asking for a shorter period of qualifying service and graduated pensions was partially supported to the Secretary of State, but rejected by him, though the probationary period will be reduced. The improvement and extension of churches was encouraged by the allotment of grants and, in especial, orders were passed for the construction or enlargement of Presbyterian churches. As to legislation, the Indian Divorce Act of 1869 was amended so as to apply to marriages of Christian converts solemnised by non-Christian rites provided both parties are Christians and that the causes for divorce arise subsequent to conversion.

ARCHÆOLOGY AND EPIGRAPHY.

Staff.

Save for a few months, Sir John Marshall was in charge of this department during the period. The staff was increased. Special encouragement was given to Indians by the addition of a number of new scholarships for the study of archæology, architecture and (by means of a special scholarship tenable in England) for archæological chemistry. For the first time an Indian (Mr. Bhandarkar) was appointed a Superintendent of a Circle.

Conservation.

The conservation of monuments was stimulated by the Coronation Durbar, the Queen's visit to Agra and generous allotments of money. Great as had been the improvements initiated by Lord Curzon, the visitor to Delhi will now find the Fort of Shahjehan transformed by the restoration of the Hayat Baksh garden and other changes and excavations. The surroundings of the Qutb Minar have been rendered worthy of one of the most impressive monuments of

the East. Humayun's tomb, the Purana Qila, Isa Khan's tomb, and Ferozshah Kotla have received careful repair and their surroundings have been beautified. Conservation works have also been carried out at the tombs of the Moghal Empress Nur Jehan at Lahore and of Sivaji at Raigarh, at the Elephanta caves, at the Jami Masjid at Srinagar and at the Dhumeikh Stupa of Sarnath, where an exquisite museum now enshrines some of the choicest relics of Buddhist art.

Sir Aurel Stein resumed his now famous explorations in Central Asia. Exploration. His latest expedition, commenced in August of 1913, is not yet ended. It is expected to be rich in results. On his return facilities will be given him for arranging his new collection and completing the narrative of his earlier discoveries. The question of the division of the previous Stein collection has been considered in consultation with the Secretary of State. The greater part of this important collection will be returned to and retained in India.

The main works of excavation that were carried out were at Taxila, where Excavation. considerable light was thrown on the history of the Parthian, Scythian and Kushan dynasties, at Pataliptura, where a pillared hall of the Mauryan kings was unearthed and further valuable discoveries are anticipated; and at the famous Tope of Sanchi. The second of these works marks a new departure. It was undertaken on behalf of Mr. Ratan Tata, who public-spiritedly undertook the cost of excavation on condition that Government would meet the salary of the officers employed to superintend.

The Conference of Orientalists which has already been mentioned Miscellaneous matters. advised on archæology, epigraphy, the collection of manuscripts and the organisation of archæological sections of museums. The archæological section of the Indian museum was reorganised and rehoused; and, in view of the growing work connected with collections, new arrangements were made for its supervision. In some museums separate assistants have been suggested or appointed. As regards epigraphy, proposals are under consideration for collecting and publishing local material. The decipherment and publication of certain Talaing inscriptions was undertaken. A wider distribution was given to archæological reports. An interesting departure was the collection of data and photographs, undertaken by Mr. Gordon Sanderson (since killed at the front) of types of modern Indian buildings, with particulars of the names, addresses and local rates of remuneration of the principal craftsmen. This work was undertaken at the suggestion of the India Society, to which the results have been transmitted, together with a note by the Consulting Architect to the Government of India regarding the question of employing Indian talent in connection with the construction of the new capital. A resolution was issued on Archæology in October 1915 together with a note by the Director General of Archæology surveying the work of the Archæological Department in some detail. The resolution after referring to the principal developments of the past five years proceeds to lay stress on the employment of Indians in archæological work and the development of museums on scientific lines.

MUSEUMS.

The Government of India increased its annual grant to the zoological and anthropological section of the Indian museum and financially assisted the Bombay Natural History Society in carrying out a survey of the mammals of India. A zoologist was attached to the Abor expedition. At the instance of the conference of Orientalists, arrangements were made for using the Indian museum for educational purposes—research by students in the university and the delivery of popular lectures. A proposal is being worked out for the establishment of an ethnological museum. The Secretary of State was addressed on the constitution of a zoological survey. Such a survey would remain intimately connected with the Indian museum but would at the same time constitute a separate scientific department of Government, working in collaboration with the Forests and Agricultural Department and officers of the Local Governments. In January 1912 the second All-India Museums Conference was held in Madras and attended by representatives from various parts of India. Action has been taken on certain of the more important resolutions passed.

MISCELLANEOUS MATTERS.

Census.

On the night of the 10th March 1911, the fourth general census of India was taken. The results, which varied only by .05 per cent. from the final totals, were published nine days later and shewed (including Native States) a population of 315,156,396 souls. The report was of peculiar interest, containing as it does an analysis of age statistics and an estimate of the rates of mortality.

Books and publications.

Under this head there is little to record. Grants were continued in aid of useful publications and aid accorded in the cataloguing of manuscripts and other literature. The English Copyright Act of 1911 was extended to British India and in 1914 an Indian Copyright Act was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council. The new copyright legislation extends the scope and terms of copyright and abolishes the formality of registration. In 1913 India acceded to the Berlin Copyright Convention.

Language examinations.

Steps were taken to encourage the study of oriental languages. New and more liberal rules were framed, admitting a larger number of officers to the tests, raising the rewards, extending the time limits and offering other inducements. Proposals are also being considered for the decentralisation of certain examinations which at present (save as regards the Madras and Bombay Presidencies) are conducted at Calcutta by the Board of Examiners.

ARMY DEPARTMENT.

IX

BOTH political and financial considerations have had so important a bearing on military administration during the period under review that a brief retrospect seems necessary.

During the greater part of Lord Curzon's and practically the whole of Lord Minto's tenure of office, attention had been more than ever concentrated on the Russian menace. To meet this threat, Lord Kitchener had, in 1903-04, submitted extensive schemes for the redistribution and reorganization of the army in India, and its preparation for war. It was found possible at that time to provide the large sums necessary to carry out many of the important improvements advocated. Briefly stated, the main idea underlying the schemes put forward was the provision of a Field Army of 8 cavalry brigades and 9 divisions of all arms, capable of holding in check a Russian advance upon India until reinforcements could arrive from other parts of the Empire. A considerable reduction in the troops assigned to internal defence was involved, which reduction was held to be justified since the improved communications of the country would permit of the concentration of previously scattered detachments.

Military policy preceding the period under review.

Before Lord Kitchener's schemes were carried to completion, political and financial considerations demanded a change in policy. The intention had been to complete the schemes within five years. In consequence of the recommendations of the Mowatt Committee assembled in 1907, and of the Anglo-Russian Convention of August of that year, it was, however, decided to delay their completion, and subsequently certain measures involving expenditure were abandoned. Lord Minto's Government, in a despatch of the 2nd September 1909, recognised that the Anglo-Russian Convention had decreased the presumption of war with Russia, and that "the enemies whom we must, for the present, be prepared to face are more likely to be Asiatics than Europeans". They, however, adhered to the necessity for a Field Army of 9 Divisions. Thus, when Lord Hardinge arrived in India, the schemes prepared by Lord Kitchener still held the field subject to certain modifications.

Prior to this date the more recent policy with regard to Lord Kitchener's schemes had been mainly initiated at Home. No searching enquiry had been instituted in India to discover whether from a political point of view a continuance of the previously accepted policy was still necessary. Towards the end of the year 1910, there were indications that owing to the impending loss of revenue from opium the financial situation might soon demand measures of greater economy, and the question came under the consideration of the Government of India on the 6th January 1911, when it was decided that, since the political situation no longer necessitated the maintenance of a field army to meet the armies of a first-class Power, a reduction of military expenditure might be effected.

Necessity for a change of policy.

The Commander-in-Chief, Sir O'Moore Creagh, then undertook to make a thorough examination of the whole question, and asked for six months within which to complete it. In a Memorandum, dated 2nd February, the Viceroy drew attention to the great changes that had taken place in the political situation of India through the alliance with Japan and the agreement with Russia, and suggested that economies in military expenditure might be possible through the elimination of regiments and other units of the Indian Army recognised by their organization and composition as useless for fighting purposes. In July 1911 Sir O'Moore Creagh forwarded to Government a Memorandum giving his opinion upon the requirements of the Army.

In criticising this Memorandum, the Viceroy again referred to the important bearing which certain changes in the political situation, notably that resulting from the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, had upon the question; and also laid stress on the importance of reconsidering the arrangements for internal security. He drew attention to the advantage of reviewing the military position in India, from time to time, to meet a varying political situation; and

in order that a military scheme might be prepared which would meet actual requirements within the margin of the military budget that the country is able to afford, suggested the assembly of a strong Committee, with Field Marshal Lord Nicholson as President. A recommendation based on the above considerations was made to the Secretary of State. In the meantime, a small Committee was assembled in October 1911, under Sir Percy Lake, the Chief of the General Staff, for the purpose of examining and recommending possible reductions in military expenditure. A Committee with Admiral Sir Edmond Slade as President was also convened to enquire into the administration and work of the Royal Indian Marine, with a view to ascertain whether it was possible to effect economy combined with greater efficiency in the working of that service. This Committee submitted its report in March 1912. Many useful suggestions were made and acted upon; but the main recommendations relating to the retention of the transports "Dufferin," "Hardinge" and "Northbrook," and to the future of the dockyards at Bombay and Kidderpore, were deferred for later consideration.

Lord Nicholson's
Committee.

The proposals of the Government of India for the assembly of Lord Nicholson's Committee received the sanction of the Secretary of State in January 1912, and the Committee commenced its sittings in the following April, under the designation of "The Army in India Committee". Its Members were — Lieutenant-General Sir Percy Lake, Lieutenant-General Sir Robert Scallan, and Sir William Meyer. The Committee were required to carry out a comprehensive survey of the various circumstances requiring the use of military force which might arise out of the external and internal situation in India under the conditions which then existed or might probably arise during the next few years; to consider and report on the numbers and constitution of the armed force which should be maintained in India to meet these obligations, and whether any, and if so what, measures for the reduction of military expenditure were compatible with the efficient maintenance of that force. The members of the Committee were divided in their opinions on many points, with the result that two separate reports, *viz.*, a Majority and a Minority Report, were submitted to the Government of India in March and April 1913, respectively. The Committee were, however, unanimously of opinion that the arrangements for internal security required strengthening, and that a force less than that hitherto considered necessary would suffice to meet any external contingency likely to arise in the early future. The Government of India accepted the recommendations of the majority of the Committee in regard to the strength of the forces to be allotted respectively to meet external contingencies and to maintain internal security. This allotment, which contemplated the maintenance of $7\frac{1}{2}$ Divisions, 5 Cavalry Brigades, and Army Troops, in a state of readiness to mobilize at the shortest possible notice, was approved by the Secretary of State. A feature of the revised peace distribution was the organisation of three mobile brigades of all arms, each to be located at a convenient centre, for employment wherever considered necessary.

The Committee also made many recommendations on various important matters connected with organisation and military finance. Sir Beauchamp Duff succeeded Sir O'Moore Creagh as Commander-in-Chief in March 1914, and the proposals of the Committee were still under consideration when, in August 1914, war with Germany and Austria-Hungary broke out. The despatch of various Expeditionary Forces, first to France, and subsequently to East Africa, Egypt, and Mesopotamia, altered the conditions existing in India at the time of the assembly of the Army in India Committee. It was recognised that the after-effects of a great war on policy, finance, and military questions generally would inevitably render it necessary to reconsider many of the recommendations made. The increase of work consequent on a state of war, moreover, left no time available to devote to questions such as those raised by the Committee. Further consideration of the Committee's reports was therefore postponed.

Preparation for
war.

An important step towards preparation for the share that India was to take in a great war had been the compilation of a "war book", having for its object the pre-arrangement and co-ordination of the action that would be required from various departments of the Government of India and from local

Governments in such an eventuality. This war book was ready in time and proved of the greatest utility. The question of the extent to which India could, in case of necessity, despatch reinforcements to Europe had also been raised in August 1913, and exhaustively discussed. This greatly facilitated the prompt despatch of troops from this country on the outbreak of the war, the Secretary of State having been informed, in July 1914, of the final decision of the Government of India to assist by placing at least two and possibly three divisions and one cavalry brigade at the disposal of the Home Government. An undertaking to supply the wastage in the case of Indian troops was also given, and a suggestion made for the employment of Imperial Service troops overseas. The actual assistance rendered by India greatly exceeded that promised.

In August—September 1914, the Indian Expeditionary Force "A" composed of one Cavalry Division and an Indian Army Corps of two Divisions, the whole under the command of Sir James Willcocks, was despatched to France, and a second Cavalry Division was sent to join this force in the following November. In September, a small expeditionary force was sent to Mombasa as a reinforcement for British East Africa, and in October, this was followed by the Indian Expeditionary Force "B" consisting of two Infantry Brigades.

Forces despatched from India.

In October, when it became apparent that Turkey was about to commence hostilities, an expeditionary force from India was sent to Mesopotamia; this force which was known as the Indian Expeditionary Force "D", was originally under the command of Sir Arthur Barrett, and consisted of one Division. It was subsequently increased to an Army Corps, composed of one Cavalry Brigade and two Divisions with Corps troops, the whole being placed under Sir John Nixon. In the same month, the Indian Expeditionary Force "E" consisting of an Imperial Service Cavalry and Infantry Brigade and 5 battalions of Indian Infantry, was despatched to Egypt; and in November, four more Infantry Brigades were added to this force.

In addition to the above organised forces, 15 batteries of Artillery and 32 battalions of British Infantry were sent to England. A battalion of Indian Infantry was sent to the Cameroons and another to Mauritius, and two battalions to the Persian Gulf. Indian troops also co-operated with the Japanese at the capture of Tsingtau in November 1914 and rendered valuable assistance. Approximately 70,000 British officers and men and 200,000 Indian officers and men were despatched overseas, inclusive of drafts and reinforcements; and it was found necessary, in order to meet the heavy demands for troops overseas, to reduce materially the force allotted to internal defence below the strength fixed on the recommendation of the Army in India Committee. To make up, to some extent, for this depletion of the garrison of India, 29 batteries of Territorial Artillery and 36 battalions of Territorial Infantry were despatched from England to India. In February 1915, in consequence of the mutiny of the 5th Light Infantry at Singapore, a battalion of Territorial Infantry was sent there.

A spontaneous offer of assistance made by the Maharaja of Nepal was gratefully accepted, and six battalions of Nepalese troops arrived in India for training in March 1915. In December 1915, an additional four battalions were added.

In order to compensate in some measure for the reduction in numbers, armoured motor car units, armoured trains, and a mechanical transport company were organised. A scheme was also prepared for armouring a certain number of privately owned cars, which, should the necessity arise, could be utilised for military purposes.

Measures to facilitate internal defence.

Intimately connected with the question of both external and internal security is that of good communications. On the North-West Frontier a narrow gauge railway had been completed in June 1913 from Kalabagh on the river Indus to Bannu, connected by a ferry with the Indian railway system at Mari; a branch line from Lakhi to Tank is nearing completion. The road from Jamrud to Landi Khana, through the Khyber Pass, was metalled and doubled throughout. On the North-East Frontier also material progress in the improvement of road communications was made, particularly in the Abor country, the Lohit Valley, the districts north of Myitkhyina, and

eastwards towards Hpimaw. An important improvement in communications was the construction of wireless stations, scattered throughout the country, in order that communication between the various important centres might be rendered independent of the telegraph. A system of wireless stations was also introduced along the North-West Frontier.

The Indian
Expeditionary
Force in Flanders.

The forces despatched to Europe and Egypt passed on their arrival at their destinations from the control of the Government of India. The Indian Expeditionary Force under Sir J. Willcocks entered the fighting line in Flanders in October 1914, and in a despatch dated the 20th November, Sir John French corroborated the report of their commander which described the conduct and bearing of the troops in strange and new surroundings as highly satisfactory. In a later despatch, dated the 2nd February 1915, after describing the severe fighting in which the Meerut and Lahore Divisions took part in December, Sir John French remarked that the Indian troops had fought with the utmost steadfastness and gallantry whenever called upon. In February 1915 the Germans made several attempts to get through all along the line. A particularly vigorous attempt was made on the 17th February against the trenches held by the Indian Corps, but was brilliantly repulsed. About this time arrangements were made in pursuance of which the various units of the Indian Cavalry Corps were enabled to take their turn in the trenches. In March the Indian Corps took a prominent part in the attack on the enemy's position at Neuve Chapelle. In April they assisted in repelling the violent German attacks on Ypres and took part in the successful advance at Festhubert, operations which were of a particularly difficult and arduous nature. In June the 1st Indian Cavalry Division distinguished itself in repelling a second determined attack on the salient at Ypres. On the 25th September the Indian Corps took its share in the great battle that resulted in a substantial advance of the British line in the neighbourhood of Loos.

Reinforcements and
recruiting.

It is obvious that heavy casualties were involved in the severe operations of which the above is but a brief outline. The winter campaign of 1914-15 with its unceasing trench warfare was a hard test on troops unaccustomed to the rigours of a western climate. There were casualties also to be replaced in Egypt, the Dardanelles, East Africa, and Mesopotamia. Great and continued exertions were made to meet the requirements of the various forces and at the same time to keep units in India at the necessary strength. Between September 1914 and October 1915, some 50,000 Indian troops were sent overseas as reinforcements. Recruiting exceeded the most sanguine expectations. In thirteen months 105,000 recruits were enlisted, the average of five preceding years for the same period having been about 15,000. Of the various classes the Sikhs, Punjabi Mahomedans, Gurkhas, Garhwalis, and Jats, responded strikingly to the call.

The further co-operation of India in respect to Force "B", despatched to East Africa, was limited to the supply of personnel, transport, equipment, and ships.

The Expeditionary
Force in
Mesopotamia.

The direction of the expedition to Mesopotamia was vested solely in the Government of India. The leading brigade was despatched from India on the 16th October 1914 and was directed on Bahrein. Hostilities with Turkey commenced on the 31st October, and the force at Bahrein was ordered to seize the mouth of the Shat-al-Arab and to protect the oil refineries on that river. This was successfully accomplished on the 6th November. The remainder of the 6th Division was promptly despatched to reinforce the brigade which had already made good the landing, and Basrah was captured on the 23rd November, followed on the 9th December by the occupation of Qurnah.

The arrival of troops from Constantinople enabled the Turks to undertake offensive operations with a view to the recapture of Basrah. This necessitated the despatch of reinforcements to Mesopotamia, and shortly after this was accomplished the Turks were decisively defeated near Shaiba on the 14th April 1915. Following on this victory, operations were undertaken to clear Arabistan of the enemy and to render the oil pipe-line secure; these operations were successfully completed by the 24th May 1915. An advance up the Tigris to Amarah was then carried out, and that place was occupied on the 3rd June. Nasiriyah, on the Euphrates, was captured on the 24th July, and a further advance was made up the Tigris resulting in the capture of Kut-al-Amarah.

Minor operations were undertaken by the Government of India in the neighbourhood of Aden. With the co-operation of the Navy a landing was effected at Shaikh Said on the 10th November 1914 and the Turkish forts and guns destroyed, after which the British force was withdrawn. On the 8th and 9th June 1915, the islands of Harnish, Kamaran, and Zugar, in the Red Sea, were occupied without opposition. In July 1915, a Turkish force threatened Lahej and a part of the Aden Movable Column moved out to forestall it, but in face of greatly superior numbers was obliged to withdraw to Aden. A brigade under Major-General Younghusband was despatched from Egypt temporarily, but was withdrawn when arrangements were made permitting of the occupation of a secure position at Shaikh Othman. Operations at Aden.

Up to the outbreak of war, there were no operations of any importance on the North-West Frontier. During the period when troops were being despatched overseas every effort was made, for political and strategical reasons, to ensure that there should be as few movements as possible of units on this frontier, and when the movement of units was unavoidable it was arranged that the relieving units should arrive before those to be relieved left their stations. Notwithstanding these precautions, the tribesmen were under the impression that nearly all the troops were withdrawn from the areas bordering on the North-West Frontier, with the result that seven sporadic attacks were made by them. Of these, three were made in the Tochi Valley by the Khostwals, against Miranshah on the 29th November 1914, against Spina Khaisora on the 7th January 1915, and again against Miranshah on the 26th March 1915. The remaining four attacks were on the Peshawar border, by the Mohmands at Hafiz Khor on the 18th April, by the Bunerwals at Rustam on the 17th August, by the Swatis at Landakai on the 29th August, and again by the Mohmands at Hafiz Khor on the 5th September 1915. All these attacks were effectively dealt with. The policy adopted was to limit operations within our own border. The inroads of the tribes permitted of the infliction on them of severe defeats without the necessity of movement into tribal territory. Operations on the North-West Frontier.

On the North-East Frontier the only military operation of any importance was the Abor Expedition, sent in October 1911, to punish the inhabitants for the murder of Mr. Williamson and Dr. Gregorson in March of that year. Active operations ceased on the complete submission of the Abors at the end of November 1911. Operations and exploration on the North-East Frontier.

On the frontier of Burma, Hpimaw was occupied without opposition on the 1st February 1913, and Putao, the capital of the Shan State of Hkamti Long, on the 6th February 1914.

A prominent feature of the period 1910—15 was the great addition to geographical knowledge of the North-East Frontier; tens of thousands of square miles of unknown country were surveyed, friendly relations were established with remote tribes and the foundation laid for the development of a region hitherto neglected. These important results were achieved partly by the despatch of political missions and tours, and partly by the efforts of individual travellers.

Among travels by individual explorers the most important were those by Captain Pritchard in 1911-12-13, and those by Captain Bailey in 1911 and 1912-13.

In the Persian Gulf the Arms Traffic operations were carried on until early in August 1914 when the blockade was raised. Arms traffic operations in the Persian Gulf.

Although the military budget was never less than nineteen and a half millions, financial considerations, as already indicated, necessitated a policy of restricted military expenditure during the earlier portion of Lord Hardinge's administration. It was also clearly desirable that no important measures which would introduce changes involving expenditure should be pushed on pending the deliberations of the Army in India Committee. Latterly the war has created an urgent need for economy, necessitating the postponement of all measures not directly connected with its requirements. Considerable progress towards efficiency was, however, made in many directions, more especially in the provision and improvement of war *matériel*. In 1911 it was decided to carry out a rearmament of artillery, six field batteries armed with 18-pr. Q.-F. guns and three armed with 5" howitzers being gradually rearmed with a Measures to promote efficiency.

new 4.5" Q.-F. howitzer; 13 mountain batteries were to receive 2.5" guns on Q.-F. carriages and 7 a new 3.7" mountain howitzer. An expensive scheme for the improvement of coast and frontier defences, which was sanctioned in 1903, was gradually proceeded with. In order to rearm the majority of the units in India with charger-loading rifles, it was decided to complete the purchase of 64,000 rifles by 1913. The Director-General of Ordnance, however, drew attention to the fact that the requirements had been underestimated partly owing to failure of the Ishapore Rifle Factory to realise expectations, and partly because a careful examination had shown a great deterioration in existing arms. It was then decided in 1912 to complete the rearmament of the whole army in India with the short rifle, and for this purpose 73,000 additional rifles were ordered. A rearmament of the North-West Frontier militia with a better rifle was completed in 1913-14. Improvements in equipment were either introduced or completed, the British Infantry receiving a new pattern bayonet, web equipment in place of the leather bandolier, and light entrenching tools. The British Cavalry were armed with a new thrusting sword, and panoramic sights were provided for Q.-F. 13 and 18-pr. guns. Subsequent to the outbreak of war it was decided to issue mobilisation equipment to all units in India except the Coast and Inland Defence Companies, Royal Garrison Artillery. Machine gun mules were also provided for all infantry units.

A marked improvement was made in the signal service of the Army. Prior to the outbreak of war four divisional signal companies and the nucleus of a wireless company were raised; these were subsequently supplemented by an additional signal company, the wireless unit was partially expanded, whilst equipment for 6 cavalry brigade signal troops and for a sixth divisional signal company was provided. In addition, as a war measure, equipment for four cavalry brigade signal troops and for a brigade signal section in each of the three frontier brigades was also provided. Temporary signal war formations were raised for service in Europe, Mesopotamia, East Africa, and in India.

It was decided in 1913 to open an aviation school in this country on modified lines for experimental research only, but with a view to its ultimate expansion, when sufficient experience had been gained, into an instructional establishment for the provision of personnel for such flying units as might be considered essential for the army in India. Owing to the war, the expansion of the school had to be deferred as the personnel and the more important material were required for Imperial purposes, and the school was consequently closed pending the cessation of hostilities. An aeroplane unit was, however, organised in India and sent to Mesopotamia for employment with the expeditionary force in that country, and the War Office subsequently expanded this unit into a squadron headquarters and two flights with the necessary flying park. The War Office are also taking steps to organise and despatch to this country an aviation unit for service on the North-West Frontier.

The most satisfactory feature in the working of the Ordnance Department was the increased rapidity with which the Ishapore Rifle Factory manufactured rifles and bayonets during the period of the war. Other ordnance factories did excellent work, not only meeting the requirements of India, but, in addition, supplying the War Office, Colonial Governments, and the various overseas forces, with guns, rifles, munitions, and other ordnance stores to the value of over two millions sterling.

Improvements in the medical services were specially marked. The organisation and equipment of field medical units were revised; a central store was formed in each division for the equipments and stores of the field medical units allotted to divisions; the Army Bearer Corps was reconstituted and its strength increased.

Many important measures to improve the moral and material welfare of the army were introduced and proceeded with. The policy of providing improved accommodation for Indian troops, combatants and non-combatants, was vigorously prosecuted, lines of an improved type being constructed by the Military Works Services. To aid in the advancement of education among British and Indian troops, a sum of Rs. 38,968 was provided for the former, and Rs. 61,032 for the latter. The pay of the officers of the British Service

was materially increased. A substantial increase was made to the wound, injury, and family pensions admissible to Indian soldiers and non-combatants.

All Indian officers, non-commissioned officers, and men of the Indian Army were made eligible for the Victoria Cross.

An Indian Army Temperance Association was started in 1911 with the object of checking the extensive use of intoxicants prevailing in certain parts of India, it being held that the best method of countering this evil was through the Indian Army to which practically each of the villages concerned sent its share of recruits. The conditions of service of Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India were improved, and improvements were also made in the pay and prospects of the Indian Subordinate Medical Department. The Staff College at Quetta was closed shortly after the beginning of the war. The accommodation set free was utilized for the training of cadets for appointment to the Indian Army, and another temporary college for the instruction of cadets was opened at Wellington.

Certain important administrative changes were also effected. The Ordnance Department was reorganised by its division into three distinct directorates, *viz.*, manufacture, inspection, and supply, and this arrangement proved a great advance on that which it replaced. The system of factory accounts was also revised and brought into line with that followed by the War Office. The Military Accounts Department was reorganised and the system of audit revised, with the result that the expenditure on the maintenance of the Department was decreased and the standard of efficiency increased. Improvements were also effected in the Supply, Transport, Remount, and other auxiliary services of the army. Administrative changes

The only important change in the peace distribution of the army was the provision of an increased garrison at Delhi, a new cantonment being formed on a site adjoining that of the new Capital. Peace distribution.

The resources of the Royal Indian Marine were subjected to a severe strain from the outbreak of war onwards. Arrangements were promptly completed for the provision and fitting out of vessels chartered for the conveyance of far larger forces than had ever left the shores of India. The dockyards worked at high pressure and were able not only to compete with the above work, but to carry out important repairs to naval ships. Valuable assistance was given in the provision of water transport on the Tigris. The service also supplied Marine Transport Officers for the various oversea forces, and officers for the examination service at Indian ports. Royal Indian Marine.

On the outbreak of hostilities, the Royal Indian Marine vessels "Hardinge," "Dufferin," "Northbrook," "Dalhousie," "Minto," "Lawrence," and "Comet" were, as contemplated in section 6 of the Indian Marine Service Act, 1884, made over to the Admiralty and the larger ships utilized as auxiliary cruisers, in which capacity they rendered useful service.

General Sir O'Moore Creagh, G.C.B., held the post of Commander-in-Chief in India during three and a half of the past five and a half years and was succeeded by General Sir Beauchamp Duff, G.C.B., in March 1914. The two Commanders-in-Chief have had the advantage of the services, as Secretaries in the Army Department, of the following distinguished officers—Lieutenant-General Sir R. Scallan K.C.B., Lieutenant-General Sir M. Grover, K.C.B., Lieutenant-General Sir W. Birdwood, K.C.B., and Major-General Holloway, O.I.E. Administration.

The heavy burden entailed by the preparation and despatch of the various expeditionary forces to the several theatres of war where Indian troops were engaged, their maintenance in numbers, equipment, transport, etc., the direction of the expedition to Mesopotamia, and the control of the operations undertaken in defence of the North-West Frontier of India, has been a very heavy strain upon the Commander-in-Chief, the General Staff under Lieutenant-General Sir Percy Lake, K.C.B., and the Army Department under Generals Birdwood and Holloway, with the very reduced staff of officers at their disposal, and no words can adequately describe the energy, skill, and devotion which, from the Commander-in-Chief downwards, have been displayed by His Excellency and the officers under his command in the successful prosecution of the war with all the military resources of India at their disposal.

X

FOREIGN AND POLITICAL DEPARTMENT.

FOREIGN SECTION.

IN the distribution of charges amongst the Members of the Executive Council of the Governor-General, it has been the invariable custom that the control and direction of the Foreign and Political Department of the Government of India should devolve upon the Viceroy, who, in the discharge of his duties as Governor-General in Council, has often to assume responsibility for decisions which do not brook delay, the Council being informed subsequently of them. So also many questions that arise between the Government of India and the Native States have obviously to be decided by the Viceroy on very personal grounds

This explanation is given in order to show why that part of this review which relates to the Foreign and Political Department is less impersonal than the remainder

General.

During the period now under review all aspects of the foreign policy of the Government of India and the security of our borders came into prominence—some in discussion and negotiation during the period of peace, others in a more critical form after the outbreak of war. Lord Hardinge's wide diplomatic experience and intimate knowledge of British foreign policy proved invaluable to the Government of India in dealing with the many difficult problems thus presented to them.

The period of nearly four years of peace after the Viceroy's assumption of office will be memorable for the consolidation of our position on the North-East Frontier; for the strengthening of our ties with Tibet in spite of the breakdown of the China-Tibet negotiations; for the improvement of our already predominant position in the Persian Gulf; and for the reorganisation of the civil forces for the defence of the North-West Frontier. Among the more important problems which exercised the Government of India during this period were the threat of Chinese aggression on the North-East Frontier; the possibility of the absorption by Russia of the New Dominion; the proposals made by Russia to enter into more intimate relations with her neighbour, Afghanistan; the scheme to construct a through railway line across Persia from Russian territory to the Gulf; the Baghdad Railway project launched under German auspices with its contingent questions affecting British interests in the Persian Gulf; the acquisition by the British Government of large interests in the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's undertakings; and the never ending troubles in Persia connected with the maintenance of peace and order and the security of our interests in that chaotic country. All these questions were at the time dealt with successfully so far as Indian interests were concerned, but most of them, after the outbreak of war, ceased to be of more than academic interest.

When war broke out, and especially after the entry of Turkey into the war, the Government of India were confronted with difficulties at almost every point within the sphere of their political control. The Burma border was threatened by the machinations of seditionists in Siam and the Far East; the Kachins, believing Burma depleted of troops, took the opportunity to indulge in a half-hearted rising, which was easily suppressed; on the North-West Frontier there were continual ebullitions of fanatical feeling manifested in attacks on British territory which would undoubtedly have been better co-ordinated and more formidable had it not been for the counter-influence of the Amir of Afghanistan and of the powerful Afridi tribe; in Baluchistan, Mekran was the scene of raids by Persian tribesmen; in Persia itself the situation, reacting as it must on Afghanistan, became, owing to the presence and the machinations of numberless German agents with armed bands, a constant source of anxiety; in Mesopotamia an expedition sent from India began to operate in October 1914, against Turkish forces, and though it started with the modest idea of capturing and holding Basrah with a single Division on the assumption that the course of the war in Europe would render this

possible, it subsequently developed into an important operation of the war ; and at Aden, after an unsuccessful attempt to defend Lahej, it was decided that our troops should confine their efforts to the protection of the Aden Settlement and its immediate vicinity, and our negotiations with the adjoining tribes for the most part proved fruitless, except in the case of the Idrisi, with whom an alliance was formed, and who apparently whole-heartedly took up the cudgels against the Turks. A bright spot in the dark clouds that surrounded India made itself apparent in the attitude of the Amir of Afghanistan. The policy of consistent courtesy and patience adopted by the Viceroy in his dealings with Kabul, both before and after the outbreak of war, had its reward in the firm attitude of sympathetic neutrality which the Amir adopted in the face of considerable antagonistic influences. As already stated, the Amir's influence was of enormous value in checking and disorganising the fanatical movement of the tribes on the North-West Frontier. In recognition of his attitude an autograph letter was sent by His Majesty the King-Emperor to the Amir, and at the same time it was announced to him that as an earnest of their goodwill His Majesty's Government had decided to increase his subsidy by two lakhs of rupees.

In March 1912 the Mangal and Zadran subjects of the Amir, assisted Afghanistan by the Ghilzai tribes, successfully rebelled against the Governor of Khost, and refugees from Khost sought shelter in the Kurram Agency. Strict orders had been issued prohibiting the Kurram tribesmen from joining in the hostilities and orders were issued for Afghan troops entering Kurram to be disarmed and escorted either to the Peiwar Kotal or through the Khyber Pass, when their arms were to be restored ; other refugees were to be deported outside Kurram. The borders of the Agency were strengthened to prevent hostilities being extended within Kurram limits and on the arrival of reinforcements from Kabul to suppress the rebellion the Amir was requested to give his troops strict orders not to cross into Kurram limits in the course of their operations. His Majesty replied that he had already done so. Jehandad Khan, Ghilzai, one of the rebel leaders, on being worsted, sought refuge in Kurram and asked for the good offices of Government with the Amir. He was given the option of being sent back to Afghanistan or of going to India and chose the latter. He came to Simla to invite the Viceroy's intercession but was sent away and went to Dehra Dun. The Amir was informed of the steps that had been taken. Jehandad Khan subsequently escaped to Afghanistan and was there apprehended, tried and sentenced to be blown from a gun.

The outlaw question of the Indo-Afghan frontier, which is one of perennial difficulty, continued acute during this period. In 1909 the Amir proposed, and the Government of India agreed to, an arrangement by which outlaws on both sides of the border should be removed to a distance of fifty miles from the frontier line. So far as practicable, this arrangement had been given effect to on the British side of the border ; but on the Afghan side, despite direct orders from the Amir, the local officials, from pecuniary and other motives, continued to connive at outlaws remaining near the border. Numerous letters were addressed to the Amir on the subject giving details of serious offences committed in British territory by outlaws residing in Afghanistan. The Amir's replies were of an evasive nature, bringing vague counter-charges against British subjects and stating that his officials had received strict orders to deal with the outlaws in Afghan territory. In 1913 the problem became acute. Kidnapped Hindus returned to British territory with the heads of other kidnapped British subjects, who had been decapitated by the outlaws to hasten the payment of ransom for other prisoners in their hands. In December the mail train was attacked at Jehangira, in the Peshawar district, the guard, driver, fireman and station chowkidar being killed ; and the Khairabad station was looted, the station-master being kidnapped. The frontier districts suffered from a succession of serious crimes of violence committed by the outlaws, and the Government of India decided that strong action was imperative. The Amir was informed that the situation had become intolerable and that the Government of India had determined to put an end to the evil and as a first step had directed the seizure of all Afghan subjects of the Khost province found in British territory. This measure was successfully carried out. It was hinted that

further and more drastic steps would follow if provocation were received. Finally, the Amir was informed that, unless he sent a force to maintain order among the outlaws and criminals of Khost, the Government of India would be obliged to close the Indian passes against Afghanistan. The Amir hastened to deprecate action being taken on these lines, and assured Lord Hardinge that he was taking strong measures against the outlaws. Matters improved sufficiently to admit of the Viceroy informing the Amir that the Government of India were willing to leave matters in his hands, and on the outbreak of war further discussion of the subject was suspended.

Sardar Muhammad Ayub Khan, the victor of Maiwand (who came to India in 1888 from Persia, on his expulsion from Afghanistan, and settled at Dehra Dun) died on the 6th April 1914. The Amir, who had always looked upon the Sardar as a potential danger to himself, on being informed of the event expressed a hope that their customary allowances would be continued to the Sardar's dependents. Suitable expenditure on these lines was sanctioned by the Government of India.

On the 22nd April 1915, Sardar Muhammad Akram Khan and Sardar Muhammad Azam Khan, sons of the late Sardar Muhammad Ayub Khan, who were residing at Lahore, attempted to escape in a motor car towards Afghanistan. They were apprehended at Attock, and brought back to Lahore in police custody. Enquiries showed that during 1914, Ghaus-ud-din Khan, son of the late Jehandad Khan, Ghilzai (who headed a rebellion of Mangals against the Amir and was executed), had approached the boys with reports that large numbers of the Sardars of Afghanistan, who were dissatisfied with the present régime, desired Akram and Azam to lead an insurrection against the Amir, and thereby regain for themselves the lost throne of their ancestors. The lads, who were dissatisfied owing to lack of useful employment and whose heads were turned at the prospect held out to them, readily fell in with the project, had interviews with representatives of the conspirators, acquired all the cash, arms and ammunition they could by the sale of family jewels and motored to Attock with the intention of crossing the North-West Frontier Province into Afghanistan, where Muhammad Akram Khan was to have been proclaimed Amir. Complete evidence was obtained of the complicity of the two Sardars and of the principal conspirators but, for political reasons, it was decided not to institute criminal proceedings against them. Accordingly, in July 1915, Ghaus-ud-din and four followers were interned in the Jubbulpore Jail under Regulation III of 1818, the two Sardars and some of their followers were sent to Kodaikanal and other followers were sent to Taunggyi, under the same Regulation. The Sardars and followers were to receive their full allowances and to remain under police surveillance but not under restraint. The Amir on first being informed of the incident affected to make light of it. When, however, he was told in August how the case had been disposed of, he expressed his gratitude and emphasised the necessity of a close watch being kept over the other Afghan refugees in India.

Afghanistan and
the war.

The Amir was officially informed of the outbreak of war with the Germanic powers, and, as his foreign relations are controlled by the Government of India, His Majesty was advised to maintain the absolute neutrality of Afghanistan and to take special precautions to preserve order on both his frontiers. His Majesty replied giving assurances that he would remain neutral. On the 5th November, the Amir was informed of the outbreak of war with Turkey, assured that the holy places of Arabia would be respected and asked to take steps to prevent the foolishly inclined among his people from raising trouble. The Amir not only sent a friendly acknowledgment of the above letter but also announced his neutrality in open Durbar. The Amir was also informed that efforts were being made to embroil him in the struggle and that false reports were being circulated of German successes and of the conversion of the German Emperor to Islam. His Majesty was congratulated on his adherence to his policy of neutrality and was informed of the general situation. The Amir promptly replied that he would abide by his engagements with the British Government and would not be led astray by false reports.

Complications were introduced into the situation by the presence in Persia of large numbers of German agents and escaped Austrian prisoners of war who, after arming some local tribesmen and endeavouring to embroil Persia in hostilities with Russia and Great Britain, started moving eastwards with the intention of entering Afghanistan. The Amir was informed in July 1915 of the strength, objects and movements of these parties, told that it was a breach of the laws of neutrality for armed parties to move about in a neutral country trying to stir up trouble, advised to disarm and intern, during the continuance of the war, such of the parties as entered Afghanistan, and requested to contradict the wild rumours which were in circulation that these parties were the van-guard of a large Turco-German army which was advancing eastward. At the end of July, on the receipt of news that one of the German parties had reached Kain, Lord Hardinge informed the Amir of the despatch of Russian and British troops to Persia to intercept the intruders. The Amir replied that it was contrary to Afghan custom to allow armed aliens to move about the kingdom and that orders had been issued to disarm and intern any that entered. His Majesty appended a postscript in his own handwriting repeating the above declaration and reiterating his intention of maintaining neutrality.

In August, the Amir was informed that a party of 70, including six Germans, had entered Afghanistan *viâ* Chahrig. He was thanked for his friendly assurances which, it was said, would be brought to the notice of His Majesty the King-Emperor, who would warmly appreciate the attitude the Amir had adopted towards these alien conspirators. In September, in stating that the Governor of Herat had been ordered to send the party in question to Kabul, the Amir asked to be informed of the manner in which the King-Emperor manifested his appreciation of the Amir's attitude. An autograph letter from the King, expressing appreciation of the Amir's attitude of strict neutrality during the war, was conveyed to the Amir on the 29th October 1915, and in the forwarding letter from His Excellency the Viceroy His Majesty was informed that his annual subsidy had been increased by two lakhs of rupees.

In September 1914, the question of prohibiting the importation into India of the "Siraj-ul-Akhbar" (a fortnightly paper published at Kabul, which had begun to display markedly anti-British tendencies) was considered, but it was held that this measure would draw undue attention to the publication. As the tone of the paper continued offensive, the Amir's attention was drawn to the matter with an intimation that the circulation of the paper in India must be stopped unless its tone improved, and the Amir was asked to take such measures as were necessary to see that the paper did not continue to publish inflammatory matter. His Majesty replied in June that the editor had been bound over to abstain from publishing matter which might lead to a breach of the peace on the frontier or in India, and he gave an assurance that the editor would not contravene his written agreement. The tone of the paper improved for a short time, but subsequently relapsed to its former character.

From time to time there were reports that the Amir was not supported by his Council or even by his household in the attitude he had adopted and there were rumours of rebellions against his authority, in consequence, and even of his assassination. Though these rumours were void of real foundation, it was evident that the Amir's policy of neutrality was distasteful to the majority of his subjects, whose sympathies were with Turkey. There was evidence that strong pressure had been brought to bear on the Amir by his advisers and by foreign emissaries, to join the so-called cause of Islam, while the Mullahs of the Indo-Afghan border assured him that the frontier tribes were waiting for him to lead them against the British. Notwithstanding this pressure, the Amir steadfastly held to the line of policy he had pledged himself to follow and His Majesty was not content to maintain a passive attitude in the matter but made the most active attempts to restrain his subjects on the border from committing offences in British districts. On more than one occasion he sent troops to recall parties of his subjects who assisted in attacks against the British and reproved the most influential of the Mullahs who were directing these hostile operations. The Amir's loyal adherence to the policy of a

friendly neutrality was doubtless due in a great measure to the frank and sympathetic letters which from time to time he received from the Viceroy regarding the progress and future prospect of the war. But the slow progress of the war and the stories of German success and of the collapse of the Allies spread by the hostile agency established at Kabul began to render the Amir's position more difficult towards the end of 1915.

North-West
Frontier Province

During the period anterior to the outbreak of war the British districts on the North-West Frontier enjoyed a spell of prosperity and comparative quiescence. A great reform was introduced in the machinery of border defence. It had gradually become apparent that the methods and organisation of the Border Military Police were no longer equal to the duties to be discharged. During the previous ten years numerous schemes had been discussed and abandoned, and in 1911 Lord Hardinge directed that a Committee should go into the whole question. As a result of the recommendations of this Committee the Border Military Police were abolished and by 1913 their place was taken by a force of Frontier Constabulary, 2,400 strong under 10 British officers, the duties of which were carefully defined and which soon gave practical evidence of efficiency.

Closely connected with the general scheme for the better protection of the border was the project for barring the ingress into the settled districts of bad characters from the tribal area between the Bannu and Kohat districts by the establishment of a line of posts between Idak and Thal. This scheme involved the permanent location of Militia in fortified posts between Idak and Thal, and was approved by the Secretary of State in 1912. The inception of the project was delayed for a time owing to evidences of tribal hostility, culminating in April 1913 in attacks on our frontier posts organised by outlaws resident in Khost. Regular troops were sent up the Tochi valley and the tribal forces dispersed. Progress was further delayed by the outbreak of the war in Europe, but the scheme was accepted as an integral portion of the organisation for border defence to be introduced at the first favourable opportunity.

So far as the trans-frontier tribes were concerned the darkest blot on the tribal record was the grave fanatical outrage in the Wana Agency committed by a Mahsud orderly in 1914. Major Dodd, the Political Agent, and two other British officers lost their lives, and in the pursuit which ended in the murderer's death at the hands of the Frontier Constabulary, three of the pursuit party were killed and two wounded. This deplorable crime came at a time when, thanks to Major Dodd's efforts and influence, our relations with the Mahsuds had shown marked improvement, but investigation proved that the deed could not be ascribed to individual fanaticism. The enforcement of tribal responsibility was imperative. Mahsuds in British territory were seized and the tribal allowances were stopped. Finally the Mahsud tribe were called upon to surrender the relations of the murderer and three other tribesmen who were implicated. These terms were partially complied with, but gradually the spread of unrest in the tribal country due to the fanatical preaching inspired by the entry of Turkey into the war accentuated the hostile attitude of the tribe. Raids into British territory were followed by the presentation of an insolent ultimatum by the tribal *jirga*; isolated parties of Militia were attacked, and by the end of 1915 this border had to be reinforced and a blockade against the Mahsuds was definitely established.

Along other portions of the border the period antecedent to the outbreak of war passed without serious disturbance, the most powerful of the tribes—the Afridis and Mohmands—setting a standard of peaceable and neighbourly conduct. The Bunerwals came into an unusual and undesirable prominence early in 1914 by committing two serious raids on villages in the Peshawar district. A portion of the Malakand Movable Column advanced into Buner and destroyed two villages implicated, whereupon the Bunerwals tendered submission and accepted the terms imposed.

During this period the history of Baluchistan and its borders was on the whole uneventful. Internal administration benefited in 1912 from a scheme for augmenting and redistributing the Civil Police Force. Some

excitement was created in the Brahui country by an outbreak on the part of Nawab Khan Muhammad, the Zarakzai Chief, who after intriguing against the Khan of Kalat, assumed an attitude of defiance to all authority, raised an armed force and looted the Kalat State Treasury at Khozdar. Troops were sent to overawe the insurgent forces, but the latter avoided battle and Khan Muhammad fled. His title of Nawab was cancelled, his chiefship was transferred to another and finally he met a violent death at the hands of his brother. Apart from this temporary disturbance, which occurred in the course of 1915, the record of the Kalat State was one of marked progress. Prior to 1912, owing to the supineness of the Khan, much embezzlement of revenues went on in the State and its affairs generally were in confusion, conditions backward and public works neglected. In May 1913 orders were issued instituting a State Budget, establishing treasuries, restricting the privy purse, and organising a State Council. An expression of the Viceroy's satisfaction at these measures was conveyed to the Khan. In order to provide effective guards for the treasuries, the Khan agreed, in 1914, to defray the entire cost of an additional company of the Mekran Levy Corps, under a British officer to be maintained at Kalat and Mastung.

The outbreak of war in August 1914 at first aroused little interest in the administered areas of the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan, probably because the nature of the conflict was not properly understood, but when it was realised that Britain was involved in a momentous struggle, spontaneous promises of service and expressions of loyalty poured in from all sides, the enthusiasm spreading even to tribal tracts. The tribes of the Khyber Agency, the Khyber Rifles and the Northern Waziristan Militia offered contingents for active service, the Bhitannis of Jandola, who had assisted at the relief of Delhi in 1857, offered their swords and lives, the Mehtar of Chitral, the Khan of Kalat, the Mirs of Hunza and Nagar and the principal chiefs and leading men of the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan, as well as the tribes of Swat and the Tochi Agency, made offers of service and assistance and submitted declarations of loyalty.

The North-West
Frontier and
Baluchistan and
the War.

Much anxiety was felt on the border as to the attitude of Turkey, but the publication of the true facts of the imbroglio with the Ottoman Empire and a proclamation guaranteeing the safety of the holy places of Arabia elicited expressions of loyalty and of condemnation of the folly of Turkey.

In tribal territory, the traditional hostility of the Mullas soon found in the war with Turkey a pretext for stirring up fanaticism and the first-fruits of their efforts were seen in the collection of a force by the Shalour Mulla of the Chagarzais for the invasion of the Hazara district. The intended attack was not delivered, as the defences of the Hazara border had been strengthened by regular troops, but the excitement resulted in agitating the Hindustani Fanatics of Buner who, for some years past, had taken no active part in local politics. In the Malakand Agency and on the Mohmand border the Babra Mulla, the Chaknawar Mulla and the Sarkanri Mulla (the two latter from Afghanistan) started an agitation which in the former tract had no definite result till August 1915. Amongst the Orakzais the Mullas endeavoured to proscribe Government service and the anti-British party at Kabul at once set to work to undermine the sentiments of the powerful Afridi clans. It was recognised by the Government of India that the attitude of this important tribe would be a prominent factor in the position of the North-West Frontier, and that prompt measures were necessary to secure their allegiance. It so happened that at the time the Government of India had before them a petition from the Afridi clans soliciting an increase in their allowances on the grounds that the road through the Khyber pass had been duplicated, that there had been a great increase in the tolls collected, that the conduct of the tribe had for many years been exemplary, and that the services rendered by them deserved recognition. The petition was temperate, respectful, strongly supported by the Local Government and on the whole well justified. It was recognised that, with the good will of Afridis secured to us, the chances of a general frontier conflagration would be greatly diminished, and sanction was promptly accorded to the tribal allowances being doubled on condition of good conduct and the ratification of past agreements. The result was entirely satisfactory. Numerous individual

instances of Afridi desertions from the Army on active service and elsewhere undoubtedly brought the Afridis into some disrepute, but their conduct as a tribe continued staunch and friendly, and remained proof against the allurements of fanatical and self-seeking intriguers.

Fanatical preaching in the Mohmand country resulted in two raids into the Peshawar district, in November 1914 and January 1915. In March the Chaknawar, Babra and other Mullas sent letters to the Mohmands, ordering them, under the Amir's authority, to prepare for *jehad*. The Amir promptly disclaimed the authorship of these injunctions and the Mohmands, who were harvesting their crops, showed no inclination to rise. The Chaknawar Mulla accordingly repeated his efforts in Afghan territory, and in April 1915 led a force of Afghans into Mohmand territory, despite peremptory orders from the Amir. The force was joined by some of the Mohmands, though the majority held aloof, and on the 17th April, after preliminary skirmishing, some 6,000 men entered British territory near Hafiz Kor and were engaged by the British troops. The *lashkars* sustained a loss estimated at 150 and retired during the night. The troops lost 14 killed and 52 wounded, including three British officers killed and three wounded. On the 20th April the Amir informed Lord Hardinge that he had made every effort to prevent his subjects from joining in this incursion and, as there was no doubt that His Majesty had done his best in the matter, His Excellency, in reply, assured His Majesty that he appreciated the proofs the Amir had afforded of his friendship and of his fidelity to his agreements.

In the Malakand Agency the inflammatory preaching of the Mullas at first had little effect. In June 1915, in pursuance of their domestic quarrels with the Nawab of Dir, their over-lord, the Upper Swat *jirgas* threatened to visit the Adinzai tract. As this movement was likely to affect the safety of Chakdarra, they were warned to desist and would have done so, but for the opportunity having been taken by their leader, the Sandakai Mulla, to preach *jehad*. The result was that the *lashkars* descended towards Chakdarra. Reinforcements had been hurriedly summoned and the sight of the troops induced the Upper Swatis to adopt a more pacific attitude. The *lashkars* dispersed peacefully but were reunited by the combined efforts of the Sandakai Mulla and the Sartor Fakir, and in August attacked the camp near Chakdarra and repeatedly attacked the Panjkora Bridge, which was defended by the Nawab of Dir and the Dir Levies. On each occasion they were repulsed with considerable loss, but they continued their efforts till, in September, the Gujar Mulla of Jandul, who had headed the attack on Panjkora, was wounded and captured, whereupon the various Mullas fled and the *lashkars* melted away. Their attempt to avenge the subsequent death of the Gujar Mulla was frustrated by destroying the bridge while the river was in flood, and the last of the hostile gatherings then dispersed.

On the failure of his initial efforts in Swat, the Sandakai Mulla preached *jehad* in Buner and was assisted by the Haji of Turangzai, a priest of great sanctity from the Peshawar district. The Hindustani Fanatics joined the Haji and much ferment was caused throughout Buner. In August the Bunerwals made several attacks on the British troops in the vicinity of the Ambela Pass, but on each occasion were driven back with heavy loss. Owing to these disasters and to the presence of reinforcements of troops on the Hazara border, the trouble was localised and failed to spread.

In August 1915 the Babra Mulla renewed his *jehad* campaign in the Mohmand country, but with little success, owing to the existence of an inter-tribal feud which he was unable to compose. The Amir, hearing of his efforts, strictly forbade his subjects from taking part in the movement and recalled the Chaknawar Mulla. At the end of August, after a visit to Bajaur, where he was promised assistance, the Babra Mulla settled the Mohmand feud and was at last successful in collecting *lashkars*. With these, on the 3rd September, he arrived at Hafiz Kor and made some petty attacks on British territory. His force numbered some 10,000 and was composed of Ningraharis, various sections of Mohmands, Safis, Utman Khel and Bajauris. On the 5th September the British troops attacked the force near Hafiz Kor and, with a loss of 18 killed (including three British officers) and 88 wounded, inflicted a

loss on the enemy estimated at 400 killed and 1,000 wounded. On the following day the troops penetrated, without opposition, to the enemy's main position of the previous day. Though the *lashkars* had dispersed the Babra Mulla tried to raise fresh forces. An epidemic of cholera however frustrated his efforts. In the middle of September Mir Sahib Jan Badshah of Islampur visited the Mohmand country and endeavoured to raise a *lashkar*, and the Chaknawar Mulla entered the country with a large force of Afghans and announced that the Amir had withdrawn his prohibition to *jehad*. On the 25th September the Kazi of Khost read out proclamations, purporting to be from the Amir, exhorting his subjects to be ready for *jehad*, the time for which was fast approaching. These announcements were belied by the receipt of orders from the Amir prohibiting Afghans from joining the movement under the penalty of severe punishment. In the meantime the Badshah Sahib, to save his face, made overtures to Government to induce the Amir to recall him, as he had left Afghanistan against His Majesty's orders. The matter was brought to the Amir's notice. Early in October, the cholera having abated, the three Mullas succeeded in collecting a force of about 9,000, which on the 4th October occupied the crests of the hills at Hafiz Kor and between Matta and Darwazagai. On the 7th they were attacked by the British forces, which successfully carried the enemy's positions, killing, it was estimated, about 100 men. The British losses were four killed and 56 wounded. The *lashkars* dispersed entirely after this encounter.

The position in the Khost province at the outbreak of the war was that the tribes were suffering from the effect of exclusion from British territory as a punishment for the depredations of outlaws. This circumstance was seized upon by the Mullas and the anti-British party to fan the opposition to the British, and false reports were circulated of British defeats, the withdrawal of troops from the frontier and the conversion to Islam of the enemies of Britain. Thus, the easily roused fanaticism of the tribesmen was excited, and on 29th November 1914 a force of Khostwals suddenly descended on Miramshah, sacked and looted the sarai and fired on the Idak post. The *lashkar* was driven back by the militia. A similar attack was made on the 7th January 1915, but the assailants were forced to retreat with a loss of about 80 killed. On the 26th March a third strong *lashkar*, which had collected above the Dande plain, was put to flight by a combined force of regulars and militia and sustained a loss of about 240 killed.

In Mahsud country the successors of the Mulla Powindah, aided by the Lala Pir of Khost and Mulla Hamzulla, endeavoured to cause an outbreak, but, probably owing to the special measures which were taken for the protection of the Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan borders, nothing more serious resulted than a number of isolated offences.

In the Baluchistan Agency proper there were not many indications of unrest as a result of the war, though the Perso-Baluch border was troubled owing to rumours of the collapse of the British Government and to the machinations of the evil-disposed. Soon after the outbreak of the war there was evidence of German intrigue in Perso-Mekran and of the dissemination of *jehad* pamphlets from Shiraz. The local agitation was mainly engineered by Mulla Khair Muhammad, the "Khalifa," who in April 1915, after causing *jehad* to be preached throughout Mekran, made an attack on Jask, which was repulsed without loss on the side of the British. He then wrecked the telegraph lines and attacked Charbar but was driven off with heavy loss and retired to his home. The garrisons at Jask and Charbar were strengthened, and Mir Barkat Khan, the local chief, accepted responsibility for restoring order in Jask. In June Bahram Khan of Bampur and other local tribesmen, constituting a force of 800 men, were reported to be assisting the Khalifa by preparing to attack Kej and Panjgur. The force looted Dasht and attacked Santsar and Gwadur but were repulsed by the Mekran Levies. After cutting the telegraph wires between Grawag and Panjgur, the raiders retired, but were reported to be preparing for fresh attacks on Mekran.

In July the Agent to the Governor-General was authorized to raise a special force of 100 levies for the purpose of intercepting parties collected under

German auspices and in August he was empowered to raise an additional force of 200 levies to act as supports to the Mekran Levies.

At the end of September, Bahram Khan, with a force of about 3,000, attacked the Nazim of Mekran near Tump, in which fortress the Nazim's party were held up for three days owing to shortage of ammunition, during which time the raiders breached but did not capture Mand Fort and looted the countryside, carrying away much property. Bahram Khan, however, sustained heavy casualties and during his absence his own territory was attacked by his enemies and in October he returned to his home.

Eastern and
North-Eastern
Frontiers of India.

In November 1910 the Government of India found themselves confronted with a Chinese question of threatening dimensions which demanded prompt remedial measures. The traditional attitude of the Government had been one of non-intervention on the borders of Assam and Burma, but this policy was destined to receive a series of shocks and reconsideration of the whole question was brought about by the realization that from across the hills an active and aggressive China was advancing towards the plains of India. The Assam frontier was undefined. The administration was restricted to the "Inner" line and our responsibilities at the most went no further than the "Outer" line which ran along the foothills. On the Burma side the frontier claimed north of latitude $25^{\circ} 35' N$ was the Irrawaddy-Salween Divide from the northern end of the demarcated Burma-China boundary at Manang Bum (or Panseng Kyet) up to the confines of Tibet, and China had been warned that, failing her acceptance of this frontier, we should administer the country right up to it.

On the side of Burma matters became so threatening that, with the approval of the Government of India, small British expeditions were sent to Laukhang where a Military Police post was established, to Hpimaw, Hkamti Long, and the Akhyang valley. Most useful exploration and survey work was undertaken and a definite boundary laid down. Finally Hpimaw was occupied and Hkamti Long and the Akhyang valley brought under regular administration. The new district of Putao was formed, roads were opened and police posts established at various places, and in this manner the country up to the frontier claimed came under our aegis in accordance with our declared intentions.

On the Assam frontier matters came to a head when in 1911 the Political Officer of Sadiya and his companion were treacherously murdered by the Abors, a tribe with whom they had been on terms of friendship and at whose invitation they had visited the Abor tract after finding the influence of the Chinese widely disseminated among the Mishmis. In consequence of this outrage and of the reports of Chinese aggression on the Burmese frontier, a forward policy was adopted which resulted in consolidating our position on the North-East Frontier. The Abors were punished and brought under control. Friendly missions visited the Mishmi and Miri country and a suitable natural frontier was defined within which our future policy was declared to be one of loose political control, having as its object the minimum of interference with the tribesmen and the exclusion of alien aggressors. Our interests along this frontier were further safeguarded by an agreement with Tibet fixing the course of the Indo-Tibetan frontier.

The same causes which were active in producing friction on the frontiers of Assam and Burma were also making themselves felt in Tibet towards the close of 1910. Chinese suzerainty in Tibet had ceased to be a shadow and had developed into a living force, assuming proportions opposed to the spirit of our Conventions with China and further galvanized into activity by the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, which, being in the nature of a mutual self-denying ordinance in regard to Tibet, left China a free hand in that area. The Chinese were not slow to avail themselves of conditions so favourable to forceful intervention and assumed the entire control of the internal administration of Tibet. Finally the Dalai Lama, shorn of all his powers, fled to India and appealed to Great Britain for assistance. Diplomatic remonstrances to the Chinese Government failed to produce any effect and Tibet seemed to be reduced practically to the position of a province of the Chinese Empire, when a sudden change in the situation was brought about by

the fall of the Manchu Dynasty in 1911. Within a few months Chinese authority in Tibet became practically non-existent and in spite of the efforts of those at the head of the new-born Republic to sustain the Manchu programme, the Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa in triumph in 1912 and in 1913 the Chinese garrison still holding out there surrendered, after considerable intermittent fighting, to the national forces. The moment seemed favourable for a triangular settlement, and under threat that a dual agreement would be effected between Great Britain and Tibet unless China consented to send a representative, a Chinese Plenipotentiary attended a Tripartite Conference which assembled at Simla in October 1913. After five months spent in negotiation a draft Convention defining the rights of the conferring powers was placed on the table, but though initialled by their representative the Chinese Government did not hesitate to repudiate it. In spite however of this breakdown the negotiations bore valuable fruit in the establishment of a complete friendly understanding between Tibet and India and the relations between the Tibetan and British Governments were placed on a footing of unprecedented cordiality and mutual confidence. Subsequent to the refusal of the Chinese Government to sign the Convention no serious collisions occurred on the eastern Marches of Tibet between the Chinese and Tibetan forces, but the Chinese Government evinced considerable anxiety to open direct negotiations with Tibet. In pursuance of the friendly understanding arrived at with the Tibetan Government, such arms and munitions as it was found possible to supply were despatched by the Government of India to enable them to maintain a bold front. These gifts, it may be noted, evoked some expression of concern from the State of Nepal, which nourishes some misgivings in regard to Tibetan ambitions, but the Viceroy gave the Nepalese Prime Minister the warmest assurances and proof of the fact that the cordial relations existing between Nepal and the Government of India were not allowed to suffer was forthcoming after the outbreak of war in the despatch of the Nepalese contingent to India and many other friendly acts.

Developments on the North-Eastern Frontier directed attention once more to the prospect of a railway connection between India and Burma on the one hand and Burma and China on the other. The latter scheme did not take a very definite shape owing to the traditional Chinese attitude on such subjects, but His Majesty's Government notified the Chinese Government that they required the Yunnan-fu-Burma connection to be reserved to British enterprise. Lord Hardinge held strong views on the question of the Indo-Burma connection and directed that a decision should be reached as to the route to be adopted in the light of the important commercial and strategical considerations involved.

On the record of the Northern and North-Eastern Frontier of India the outbreak and progress of the European War exercised but little influence, or at any rate such influence did not rise to the surface except in an isolated disturbance among the Kachins in the region of the new Putao district. The reasons for this outbreak were obscure, but apparently were to be found in the withdrawal of troops and in the exaggerated rumours of the weakening of the British power. Punitive columns were sent out and the rising was promptly quelled.

It may be noted that it was not for lack of combustible materials that the history of this region subsequent to the outbreak of war remained free from incident. Several members of the Indian revolutionary party from America and China, directed and financed by Germans, endeavoured to establish in Siam a basis of operations against Burma and India. Cordial relations had always existed between the Government of India and the Kingdom of Siam, and the King of Siam, who was personally known to the Viceroy, now showed his friendliness by actively assisting in breaking up this nest of seditionists and in banishing and handing over the ringleaders. The Siamese Government further suspended the issue of licenses to import arms and munitions into Siam in order to prevent the possibility of their export by ill-disposed persons to Burma.

Persia and the
Gulf.

Projects for the development of railways in the Middle East supported by foreign financial groups, schemes for wireless telegraphic installations, and evidences of increasing foreign commercial enterprise, notably German, brought the realization that, if our controlling position in regions and waters vital to our interests in the East was to be maintained, a more definite policy in regard to foreign activities and to the status of local chieftains must be adopted without delay. As early as 1911 Lord Hardinge wrote :— "Everything points to the necessity of our consolidating our position in the Persian Gulf and of being ready for any emergency".

The question first assumed prominence in connection with the Baghdad Railway scheme. The Government of India urged the necessity of ensuring a preponderating British share in the Gulf section and when eventually the division of share capital inadequately represented British interests, negotiations were undertaken with the Porte to secure our interests in other ways. An understanding on these lines had been reached with the Turkish Government defining our mutual interests in the upper waters of the Gulf and establishing the future status of Bahrain, Katar, and Kuwait, when war broke out between the British and Turkish Governments and the agreement remained unratified. In the meantime, as a counter-move to the proposed Baghdad Railway, the Russian Government had proposed a Trans-Persian Railway from Baku *via* Tehran, Yezd, and Kerman to Nushki *via* Sistan.

The scheme was favourably regarded as being in the interests of civilization and commercial development, but the position of India required that the alignment of the proposed railway should not neutralize the advantages of our naval supremacy. The Government of India, therefore, on strategical grounds pressed for a coastal alignment from Bandar Abbas to Karachi. Negotiations on the subject were interrupted by the war.

The activities developed at the head of the Gulf by semi-commercial concerns backed by the German Government such as the Hamburg-America line, Robert Wouckhaus & Co., had their counterpart in the improved lighting and buoying of the Gulf waters under our auspices and in the taking over of the oil-fields in Southern Persia under British control. Agreements were obtained from the local Chiefs concerned safeguarding our interests, and early in 1914 a Committee sat in India to examine the question of the conservation and protection of the fields and also to estimate their value for naval and other requirements. In 1914 an attempt was made to secure a lease of the Larak, Henjam, Kishm, and Hormuz islands from the Persian Government which was then in more than usually acute financial straits, and therefore in a favourable mood to consider the proposal. The outbreak of war put an end to the negotiations for the time being.

Operations in Gulf waters to check the traffic in arms and thereby to reduce our anxieties on the North-West Frontier of India continued throughout the period under review and our difficulties in securing control were greatly diminished by the introduction of a bonded warehouse at Maskat, which enabled all purchases to be checked and to which the Sultan's assent was secured by the grant of an increase of one lakh in his annual subsidy. This friendly understanding with the Sultan was further cemented by the grant to him of military assistance with the aid of which he was enabled to repel the attacks of the Hinterland tribes who in 1915 advanced at the call of their fanatical leaders to attack Maskat.

In the internal affairs of Persia, as distinct from the Gulf, the arrangement in which the Government of India was most deeply concerned, was the introduction of a Persian Gendarmerie force under European officers to protect the southern trade routes. The Government of India had previously advocated the formation of such a corps under British officers, but this scheme did not find favour, though, had it been approved, the British Government would have been saved an awkward situation in Shiraz in 1911, when a regiment of cavalry was locked up in Persia for a year owing to the dangers threatening European lives and property, and would have avoided the unfortunate introduction of Swedish instructors who, after the outbreak of war, showed marked pro-German activities and finally raised a Gendarmerie revolt against the Central Persian Government in German interests.

An important question which engaged the attention of the Government, but which did not take concrete form, was that of the British position in Persia in relation to the forward policy adopted by Russia under the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907. Certain measures for strengthening the British position in Southern Persia were suggested for the consideration of His Majesty's Government and these were under consideration when the outbreak of war changed the aspect of affairs.

Directly the war in Europe broke out the Turks began to make military preparations and to strengthen their position along the Shatt-el-Arab, plainly indicating their inclination to espouse the German cause. Though it was not the policy of His Majesty's Government to take any action which could be interpreted by the Turks as a menace or put forward as an excuse for joining our enemies, British warships patrolled the Persian Gulf and a British expeditionary force was held in readiness at Bahrain. The declaration of war with Turkey—a very fateful pronouncement from the Indian point of view—occurred on the 31st October 1914.

The War and the Middle East

The Viceroy at once caused a communiqué to be issued explaining the British case and the reasons which had forced Great Britain reluctantly to sever diplomatic relations with Turkey. Later a public announcement was made stating that the Moslem Holy Places and Jeddah would be immune from molestation on our part so long as there was no serious interference with pilgrims. There can be no doubt that the prompt publication of this wise and considerate policy had a far-reaching effect, depriving German propaganda of a fruitful field for libel against us. The expeditionary force moved up to the head of the Persian Gulf from Bahrain, the Turks were defeated with heavy loss and Basrah and Kurna were occupied by our forces before the end of 1914. These operations were greatly assisted by the strengthening of our political ties with the Shaikhs of Kuwait and Mohammerah. Special inducements were offered to them for their active co-operation including promise of protection against reprisals by a foreign power, local autonomy, and immunity from certain forms of taxation. The administration of the Basrah Vilayet was established under the aegis of the Government of India, but it was decided that no announcement as to whether that administration was to be permanent or temporary should be made until the conclusion of the war.

Early in 1915 Lord Hardinge paid a visit to the Gulf and included this new sphere of responsibility in his tour. At Basrah he was received by a deputation from the commercial community and he subsequently visited the troops holding Kurna and its environs. In the course of the tour interviews were accorded to the Chiefs of Kuwait, Mohammerah and Maskat. Lord Hardinge on his return to India placed on record a note embodying his general views as to the future status and administration of Basrah in the light of its political, strategical, commercial and religious interests.

In the course of 1915, the forces under the command of General Sir John Nixon extended their hold over Iraq. The scope of our administration was enlarged and friendly relations were established with the Arabs in the valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates. When towards the end of the year the force was within striking distance of Baghdad, the failure of the Dardanelles operations, and developments in the Balkans enabled the Turks heavily to reinforce their Iraq command and after an indecisive battle at Ctesiphon at the end of November, our forces were compelled to act for a time on the defensive.

Throughout the course of these operations from the moment of our landing, a useful diversion in our interests was created by the adherence of Bin Saud to our cause in return for a guarantee on our part of his independence as Amir of Nejd, Katif, and Hasa and of our support in case of unprovoked aggression by a foreign power. The active campaign which Bin Saud prosecuted against his rival Bin Rashid frustrated the efforts of the Turks to obtain united Arab co-operation in their campaign against us. At the end of the year a formal Treaty with Bin Saud was negotiated at Katif.

Persia itself, from the moment war broke out, in spite of a formal announcement of neutrality, became an arena of disorder and conflicting intrigues and a source of considerable anxiety to the Government of India.

Persia and the War.

The danger that German gold and forcefulness would prevail over Persian weakness to carry the so-called *jehad* up to the frontiers of Afghanistan and India was one which those responsible for the protection of India could at no time afford to dismiss from their minds. Up to the time of the arrival of considerable Russian forces in the neighbourhood of Tehran, that is to say, up to November 1915, the pro-German party exercised enormous influence at Tehran, and by dint of bribery, of skilfully using the religious cry and of making capital out of the presence of Russian troops in Persia were more than once within an ace of carrying the Shah and his Government into the arms of the Germanic alliance. The first sign of Persia's weakness was its failure to resist a Turco-Arab force which invaded the country as far as Tabriz and to protect British interests in Arabistan and the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's property from a similar incursion. A detachment was sent from the British force in Mesopotamia to Ahwaz to protect the oil-fields, and from this time onward, owing to the incapacity and indecision of the Persian Government, the neutrality of Persian soil received little respect from either belligerent. For the defence of the pipe-line arrangements were concluded with the Bakhtiaris independently of the Persian Government and a subsidy was granted to the Bawi tribe. The activity of German agents on Persian soil notably the so-called German Consul at Bushire, and of German commercial agents in the region of the Gulf, rendered strong action on our part imperative. Wherever possible, they were arrested and deported to India for internment. Parties led by German agents moved freely about the Persian provinces stirring up fanaticism and succeeded, with the active help of the Swedish instructors of the Gendarmerie, in obliterating all evidences of effective central control from Tehran. One such party made its way to the Afghan frontier and eventually to Kabul. Our representatives in Southern and Western Persia were authorised to raise irregular forces and to spend money freely to counteract the intrigues of pro-German emissaries. A force of regular troops was sent from India to Sistan to interpose a screen between Afghanistan and German machinations, and this move undoubtedly had an effect in steadying local opinion in that quarter.

In May 1915 German intrigues with the Khans in the neighbourhood of Bushire led to attacks on the Bushire Residency and matters came to such a pass in this region that our Minister at Tehran proposed in August 1915 that an ultimatum should be presented to the Persian Government insisting on their actively joining our cause without delay. Lord Hardinge emphatically deprecated such a step which could only lead to driving the Persian Government into open hostility against us, and as a consequence of his protest the ultimatum presented to the Persian Government contained the following terms :—

That the Persian Government should, within a week, take steps to punish those Khans who were concerned in the outrage on Bushire; (2) pay compensation for each British officer and sepoy killed in the above outrage; (3) take action to arrest, disarm, and intern, or hand over to the British authorities for deportation, all the German agents in Persia; and (4) recall the then Governor-General of Fars, who had identified himself openly with German intrigue. If the Persian Government failed to comply with the above demands within the time specified, it was decided to forthwith assume control of the administration of Bushire, take over the control of the Customs House, hold the revenues, disallow the despatch of merchandise into the interior of Persia, and bombard Dilwar.

As the Persian Government failed to comply and the period of compliance had expired, Bushire was occupied by a British force on the 8th August 1915 and Dilwar was effectively bombarded.

Subsequent negotiations with the Persian Government resulted in the removal of the unfriendly Governor-General of Fars and the appointment of our nominee in his place and the restoration of Bushire to the Persian administration in October 1915. Our conciliatory attitude did much to placate political opinion in Tehran, but it was too late to remedy conditions in the outlying provinces. The Gendarmerie in Fars under their Swedish instructors broke

into open revolt against the central authority and, professing to act in the name of the Shah, seized the British Consul and other members of the British community at Shiraz and carried them to captivity in the Bushire Hinterland. The Consul and community at Kerman had hastily to withdraw to Bandar Abbas as their position had also become one of jeopardy. Thus a strange situation arose in Persia in which the southern provinces were controlled by rebels hostile to us, while the Shah and leading opinion at Tehran began to show leanings towards the cause of the Allies. This friendly feeling was, it must be admitted, mainly inspired by the arrival of considerable Russian forces in the neighbourhood of Tehran and the defeat by General Baratoff of rebel concentrations at Hamadan and Kum which led to the hasty withdrawal of the German Legation from Persian soil.

The history of the Aden Protectorate was not remarkable in any particular prior to the outbreak of war. When Turkey ranged herself with our enemies South-Western Arabia. our political representatives in pursuance of their instructions sought to secure the active support of local Arab Chiefs. Prominent in these negotiations were the Shaikh Idrisi, a Chief of the lower Yemen, and Sheikh Ibn Nasir Mukbil the Kaimmakam of Kamaira, known as the "Mavia." The former, his independence guaranteed, and his sinews stiffened with funds and ammunition, proved himself a staunch ally and entered into active hostilities with Turkish adherents in the Yemen. The Mavia, on the other hand, failed us in the hour of trial. A Turkish force invaded the Aden Protectorate, and owing to the support of the Mavia and other Arab Chieftains, was able in July 1915 to occupy Lahej, the capital of our friend the Abadali Sultan, who was killed in the fight. After an unsuccessful attempt to relieve Lahej it was decided that the British forces should, for the time being, remain on the defensive close to the borders of the Aden Settlement where the Turks were powerless to effect any further success.

The declaration of the state of war with Turkey resulted in a number of The Hedjaz Indian pilgrims being held up in the Hedjaz. The somewhat equivocal attitude of the Jeddah authorities and their need of food-stuffs enabled arrangements to be made for these pilgrims to be repatriated under the British flag.

The policy of supplying a limited amount of food-stuffs to Jeddah in order that the inhabitants of the Holy Places might not suffer was continued, partly to satisfy Muhammadan sentiment in India and partly to win over Arab opinion which, generally speaking, was not favourable to Turkish domination. For the same reason no bar was placed on the pilgrimage from India in 1915 and the comparatively small number of pilgrims who embarked carried through their enterprise without undue difficulty.

Apart from the course of events in South-Western Arabia Indian interest in Arab problems received a considerable impetus from the campaign in Iraq and from co-operation of Bin Saud and our friendly relations with other Arab Chiefs. This interest was rendered more acute by two other matters of far wider significance, namely, the future of the Khalifate and the pan-Arab question—problems of far-reaching importance from the Indian point of view. There was a disposition in some quarters to take up the question of definitely supporting a candidate as successor to the Sultan of Turkey in the Khalifate, and to endeavour to secure at once the nomination of an Arab Khalif who might be favourably disposed to the cause of the Allies. Lord Hardinge insisted that any attempt to meddle with the selection of the Khalif would be a serious political blunder, and that it would be a grave mistake to involve ourselves in a religious controversy of this character. This view eventually commanded acceptance.

The pan-Arab question forced itself to the front owing to the strong belief entertained in official circles in Egypt that the Arabs as a whole were prepared to unite against Turkey and that all possible concessions should be made to further this movement. To the Viceroy, whose view of the Arab movement did not incline to optimism, the issuing of vague assurances to the Arabs implying almost complete surrender on our part of the territories won mainly by the efforts of India in Mesopotamia was a matter of the deepest concern, and while anxious not to appear obstructive in regard to the ambitious

scheme for procuring an Arab ally he put forward very strongly his view that the terms of the agreement should be framed on a reasonable reciprocal basis, that they should be conditional on active assistance and not passive benevolence on the part of the Arabs, and that, above all, the conquests made at great cost of blood and money on Turkish soil should not be lightly surrendered.

Foreign Department.

Sir H. McMahon, G.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., High Commissioner in Egypt, Sir P. Cox, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Chief Political Officer to the Field Force operating in Mesopotamia, and Mr. Grant, C.S.I., C.I.E., have during the past five-and-a-half years officiated as Secretaries to the Foreign Department, and have shown exceptional skill and ability in the execution of their duties connected with the Department. Since the outbreak of war the work of the Department has been excessively difficult and arduous and the highest praise is due to Mr. Grant and the officers working under him for the zealous co-operation and able manner with which they have coped with the many problems that have arisen from a decidedly complicated situation.

POLITICAL SECTION.

DEPARTMENTAL CHANGES.

Constitution of the Department and appointment of Political Secretary.

The present constitution of the Foreign and Political Department dates from the 1st January 1914. Up to that time there had been no clear distinction between the foreign, or external, and the political, or internal, work of the Department, and the Foreign Secretary combined the duties of adviser to the Viceroy, not only in regard to frontier and external matters, but also on matters connected with the political control of the Native States in India. As a consequence of the rapid growth of public business in both these directions, it was found, in the course of the period under review, that the work and responsibility of the Foreign Secretary had become more than one individual could be asked to perform. The situation thus created, combined with the difficulty of finding an officer experienced in the external and internal affairs of the Department, led to the consideration of measures for relieving the Foreign Secretary of part of his duties. The Viceroy was not in favour of the appointment of a Political or Foreign Member of Council, since such a measure would affect the relations between the Viceroy and the Ruling Chiefs and would not be popular with the latter. A proposal was accordingly submitted for the creation of an appointment of a Political Secretary to the Government of India, who would devote his attention to questions connected with the relations between the Government of India and Native States and kindred matters, leaving external and frontier affairs to be dealt with by the Foreign Secretary. The proposal was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and the scheme was brought into effect from the 1st January 1914, when the name of the Secretariat was changed to the Foreign and Political Department.

Reorganisation of the Political Department of the Government of India.

The scheme for the reorganisation of the Political Department of the Government of India, which was initiated during the later period of Lord Minto's administration, was completed and introduced with effect from the 21st of May 1911. The objects sought were, firstly the abolition of the dual cadre with its attendant anomalies and inconveniences; secondly the amelioration of the position of officers on the General Cadre; and thirdly the introduction of a scale of pay which would assure a steady flow of promotion to all officers already in the Department and to those who might be admitted to it in the future.

The main feature of the revised scheme was the substitution for the graded system of a time-scale of pay at uniform rates for all members of the Department below the grade of Resident, with additional personal allowances for members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Punjab Commission calculated at a rate which would give them approximately the emoluments which they might expect to draw in the Provinces. The salary for the 1st

year of civil service was fixed at R450 a month and the maximum pay under the time-scale, to be reached in the 23rd year of civil service, at R2,400 a month. Above the time-scale were retained 15 selection posts, *viz*, 6 Residents, 1st Class, on R4,000 a month each and 9 Residents, 2nd Class, on R2,750 a month each. The grant of Exchange Compensation Allowance was restricted to officers holding substantive or officiating appointments in the grades of Resident. The normal strength of the Department was reduced from 152 to 137 officers, 40 being members of the Indian Civil Service and 97 military and other officers. The financial effect of the new scheme was a saving of R9,752 a month. This result, however, was largely due to the reduction of a number of cadre posts for reasons not exclusively connected with the need for reorganising the Department. The Department now contains 100 cadre appointments of which 63 are termed "superior." To guard against the possible ill effects of a time-scale, it has been ruled that no officer shall draw more than R1,250 *per mensem* unless he is reported to be fully qualified for the charge of a superior post.

Prior to the reorganisation of the Department, recruitment for the latter was conducted on no fixed principle but on vacancies as they occurred. This practice has been abandoned and the number of officers recruited every year is now a matter of actuarial calculation.

After 18 months' experience of the working of the Political Department, the Viceroy was impressed with the desirability of imposing some limit on the tenure of office of Chief Commissioners and other heads of local Administrations under the control of the Department. Under existing arrangements the tenure of these appointments was unlimited, with results detrimental both to the spirit and to the efficiency of the service. It was accordingly resolved, after consultation with local officers and discussion in Council, that the term for which an officer may hold any one of the six appointments of 1st Class Resident should ordinarily be limited to a period of five years with effect from the date of appointment: that officiating service during which the full pay of the appointment is drawn, if followed continuously by substantive tenure of the same post, should be included in this period, but not otherwise; that at the expiration of five years the question of an extension of the appointment for a specified term not exceeding five years, of transfer to another post, or of retirement would be considered by the Government of India: and that an appointment might be renewed more than once if this appeared to be desirable on public grounds. This important reform was carried into effect in August 1913.

Limitation of the
tenure of office
of 1st class
Residents.

Owing to the greatly enhanced importance of the appointment of Political Resident in the Persian Gulf both from the Indian and Imperial points of view, and to the desirability of the Viceroy being in a position to command for it the services of the ablest Political Officers, the status of the post was raised to that of a Residency of the 1st Class on R4,000 a month with effect from the 10th February 1915.

Raising of the
status of the
Political Resident,
Persian Gulf.

In 1913 the Government of India arrived at the conclusion that the results of the practical working of the system inaugurated during Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty, under which the political control of the Phulkian States was entrusted to an officer of the Punjab Commission whose selection was subject to the approval of the Government of India, were far from satisfactory and that its continuance was prejudicial to the future development of these important States and to the maintenance of good relations between them and the paramount power, and they considered that a change was absolutely necessary. It was recognised that the failure of the old system was due in no small degree to the fact that the officers to whom the supervision of the States in question had been entrusted had not, as a rule, had the advantage of a specialised political training which the Government of India considered an essential qualification in the case of an officer appointed to the charge of these States. With a view therefore to securing the selection of more suitable officers, it was recommended to His Majesty's Secretary of State for India that the supervision of the Phulkian States should for the future be placed in the hands of an officer selected from the Political Department of the Government of India, whose services would be lent for that purpose to the Local Government.

Control of the
Phulkian States.

It was also settled that the duties of this officer should be confined to the control of the Phulkian States and that a separate Agency, in charge of an officer of the Punjab Commission, should be constituted to include Faridkot and the two Muhammadan States of Bahawalpur and Maler Kotla.

THE NATIVE STATES.

The recent policy of the Government of India in dealing with the Native States has been one of sympathy and trust. During his Viceroyalty Lord Hardinge missed no opportunity of making the personal acquaintance of the Ruling Chiefs of India and of cultivating friendly relations with them. He succeeded in visiting most of the important Native States in the course of his tours and, where time did not admit of this, visits were exchanged with, or interviews accorded to, the Chiefs at the Provincial Headquarters. He also made a practice of inviting many of the Chiefs to stay with him at Viceregal Lodge in Simla as his private guests. This was no new departure, as Ruling Chiefs have been the guests of former Viceroys at Viceregal Lodge, but such visits were more frequent during recent years than was formerly the case. The personal friendships thus formed proved of great value both to the Viceroy and the Chiefs in their political relations.

Higher Chiefs' College and Conference of Ruling Chiefs.

The Viceroy's deep interest in the affairs of the Ruling Chiefs and his anxiety to associate them with himself as partners and colleagues in the Government of the Empire of India were displayed in a practical manner by inviting their co-operation in various matters of mutual concern. Thus on the occasion of the Imperial Visit to India His Excellency invited three of the most important Ruling Chiefs, the Maharajas of Gwalior and Bikaner and the Maharaja Regent of Jodhpur, to sit on the Committee appointed to deal with the preparations for the great Durbar at Delhi. He also created an entirely new departure by summoning to Delhi in 1913 and 1914 a Conference of Ruling Chiefs to deliberate on the scheme for a Higher Chiefs' College and on other matters affecting their order. These marks of friendly confidence were fully repaid by the greater insight obtained by the Government of India into the thoughts and feelings of the Durbars and, on the part of the Chiefs, by the wider outlook resulting from mutual association and exchange of ideas. Consideration of the scheme for the Higher Chiefs' College has been temporarily suspended during the war, but it is hoped that with the aid of the subvention of Rs50,000 a year promised by the Government of India and with the support of the Ruling Chiefs, who have already promised donations and subscriptions amounting to Rs11,65,700 and Rs24,000 a year, respectively, the project will not be long in coming to fruition. The success of these Conferences suggested the possibility of the permanent institution of a Council of Princes, which would advise the Government of India on matters affecting the Native States. It was decided, however, to leave this question also for consideration after the War.

Among other acts illustrating the recent policy of the Government of India may be mentioned the following :—

Relief of certain Native States of the cost of the local Political Agencies.

It had been recognised by Lord Minto's Government that, except where otherwise provided by treaty, and as a matter of general principle, the cost of a Political Agent accredited to a Native State should properly be borne by the Government of India and not by the State; and that it was only when the ordinary functions of a Political Officer were extended to doing direct work for the State that the State could properly be called upon to pay for his services. These principles were accepted by the Secretary of State in 1911, and the following States have since been relieved of contributions towards the cost of Political Agencies :—Dholpur, Karauli, Alwar, Kotah, Jhalawar, Bikaner, Dungarpur, Banswara and Partabgarh in Rajputana, and Rewa in Central India. Bharatpur being under a minority has been relieved of 25 per cent. of the Agency charges, so long as the minority lasts.

To reduce the amount of increased expenditure thrown on Indian revenues, the political charges in Rajputana were reconstituted and the separate Agencies at Bikaner and Alwar were abolished.

The Civil and Military Station of Bangalore, known as the Bangalore Assigned Tract, was assigned to the Government of India by the Mysore State at the time of its rendition to the Maharaja in 1881. The revenues of the Tract were paid into the Mysore State treasury till the 31st March 1884, after which date they were credited to the Imperial treasury

Payment to the Mysore State of the surplus revenues of the Bangalore Assigned Tract.

The Government of India decided in 1881 that, should a considerable surplus of income over expenditure accrue regularly, some allowance might be made upon an average estimate of this surplus to the Mysore State in calculating the subsidy payment. This undertaking made it necessary to establish a *pro formâ* account in order to see whether any regular and substantial surplus of revenue over expenditure did, in fact, accrue in the Assigned Tract. The Government of India, however, retained full discretion in the matter of applying the revenues of the Tract and did not admit the Durbar's right to a surplus of these revenues.

The question of the disposal of the surplus remained unsettled until 1911 when, in consequence of the publication of the *pro formâ* accounts, the Mysore Durbar submitted a representation against the inclusion of certain items therein, and contended that if these items were omitted or modified, there would be such a regular and considerable surplus shown by the accounts as would enable the Government of India to execute their admitted intentions in regard to the surplus. The suggestions made by the Durbar were, after careful examination, largely adopted by the Government of India and the entire accounts were remodelled with retrospective effect. The revised accounts for the period 1881-82 to 1910-11 exhibited a surplus of Rs 42,20,240-9-11. After deducting therefrom the sum of Rs 2,97,300-15-3, the amount of the surplus for the years 1881-82 to 1883-84, which had been included in the amount made over to the Durbar in 1885, the Government of India agreed to pay the balance, Rs 39,22,939-10-8, to the Durbar. Under instructions from the Secretary of State for India part payment of Rs 30 lakhs was made on the 3rd March 1914. Payment of the balance was deferred pending discussion of certain aspects of the matter with Lord Crewe and was finally made in March 1915. The liberal attitude of the Government of India in the settlement of this question was greatly appreciated by the Mysore Durbar.

In January 1911 the Viceroy initiated the suggestion that, as a Coronation Durbar Concession, the Government of India should forego for the future all claims to *nazarana* payments upon the succession of Ruling Chiefs to their States. On the question being examined it was found that politically the levy of *nazarana* could only be justified on the ground that the tax emphasised the dependence of the State upon the Paramount Power. That argument had, however, lost much force in view of the fact that many States had from time to time been exempted from payment of the tax. As a source of revenue the tax was not of much importance; while so far as the States themselves were concerned, it was in some cases certainly a burden on their resources and a positive hindrance to development. Analysis of the facts showed moreover that there had been great inequality of treatment in the past; some States of a clearly "feudatory" nature having escaped the tax, while others whose status was less certainly defined had to pay. Further the States which had been declared liable were, for the most part, petty States, upon which the burden fell very severely, at a time when heavy expenses had to be incurred in the settlement of family affairs: and finally, great trouble was involved in assessment and collection of the tax, especially in the case of small partitioned estates in Bombay.

Abolition of levy of *nazarana* on all future successions in Native States.

The Government of India therefore decided that it would be wise to abandon the claim to *nazarana* for the future and the concession was eventually announced at the Imperial Durbar.

In July 1913 His Highness the Maharaja approached the Government of India with a view to the modification of the "Instrument of Transfer" of 1881, whereby the relations between his State and the Paramount Power were regulated. His Highness was dissatisfied with the Instrument on the ground that its form placed him in an inferior position to other Ruling Chiefs and that certain of its terms were unduly stringent.

Mysore Treaty.

The Maharaja's representation received the sympathetic consideration of the Government of India. It was recognised that his objections to the "Instrument of Transfer," though in the main sentimental, were not without force; and that while the policy adopted in 1881 was clearly justified in the circumstances of the day, the time had arrived when the relations of the Paramount Power with the Ruler of Mysore might suitably be placed on a footing more in consonance with the latter's actual position among the Feudatory Chieftains of India. For the above reasons, and in view of the loyalty and zeal displayed both by the late Maharaja and the present Chief in their administration of the Mysore State since its rendition in 1881, it appeared to Lord Hardinge's Government highly desirable to meet His Highness' wishes as far as possible. As a modification of the existing "Instrument of Transfer" was not feasible, it was decided, with the sanction of the Secretary of State, to supersede that document by a treaty embodying the changes desired by the Maharaja. The new treaty was concluded on the 26th November 1913, and was ratified on the 1st December 1913. It reproduces the main features of the Instrument of 1881; while meeting His Highness' wishes, it adequately safeguards the position and privileges of the Paramount Power. The treaty has given the greatest satisfaction to the Ruler and people of Mysore.

Assistance given
by the Native
States towards the
war.

The political advantage of these and other acts of conciliation and confidence was strikingly demonstrated by the outburst of loyal enthusiasm on the part of all the Native States of India on the outbreak of the war in August 1914.

The message sent by the Viceroy to the Secretary of State on 7th September 1914, which is of historic importance, may be quoted in full :

"The Rulers of the Native States in India, who number nearly seven hundred in all, have with one accord rallied to the defence of the Empire and offered their personal services and the resources of their States for the war. From among the many Princes and Nobles, who have volunteered for active service, the Viceroy has selected the Chiefs of Jodhpur, Bikaner, Kishengarh, Rutlam, Sachin, Patiala, Sir Pertab Singh, Regent of Jodhpur, the Heir-apparent of Bhopal, and a brother of the Maharaja of Cooch Behar, together with other cadets of noble families. The veteran Sir Pertab would not be denied his right to serve the King-Emperor in spite of his seventy years and his nephew, the Maharaja, who is but sixteen years old, goes with him. All these have, with the Commander-in-Chief's approval, already joined the Expeditionary Forces. The Maharaja of Gwalior and the Chiefs of Jaora and Dholpur, together with the Heir-apparent of Palanpur, were to their great regret prevented from leaving their States. Twenty-seven of the larger States in India maintain Imperial Service Troops and the services of every corps were immediately placed at the disposal of the Government of India on the outbreak of war. The Viceroy has accepted from twelve States contingents of cavalry, infantry, sappers and transport, besides a camel corps from Bikaner, and most of them have already embarked. As particular instances of generosity and eager loyalty of the Chiefs, the following may be quoted. Various Durbars have combined together to provide a hospital ship to be called the 'Loyalty' for the use of the Expeditionary Forces. The Maharaja of Mysore has placed fifty lakhs at the disposal of the Government of India for expenditure in connection with the Expeditionary Force. The Chief of Gwalior, in addition to sharing in the expenses of the hospital ship, the idea of which was originated with himself and the Begum of Bhopal, has offered to place large sums of money at the disposal of the Government of India and to provide thousands of horses as remounts. From Loharu in the Punjab and Las Bela and Kalat in Baluchistan come offers of camels with drivers to be supplied and maintained by the Chiefs and Sardars. Several Chiefs have offered to raise additional troops for military service should they be required, and donations to the Indian Relief Fund have poured in from all States. The Maharaja of Rewa has offered his troops, his treasury and even his private jewellery for the service of the King-Emperor.

"In addition to contributions to the Indian Relief Fund, some Chiefs, namely, those of Kashmir, Bundi, Orchha, Gwalior and Indore have also given large sums to the Prince of Wales' Fund. The Maharaja of Kashmir, not

content with subscribing himself to the Indian Fund, presided at a meeting of twenty thousand people held recently at Srinagar and delivered a stirring speech in response to which large subscriptions were collected. Maharaja Holkar offers free of charge all horses in State Army which may be suitable for Government purposes. Horses also offered by Nizam's Government, by Jamnagar and other Bombay States. Every Chief in the Bombay Presidency has placed the resources of his State at the disposal of Government and all have made contributions to the Relief Fund. Loyal messages and offers also received from Mehtar of Chitral and tribes of Khyber Agency, as well as Khyber Rifles. Letters have been received from the most remote States in India, all marked by deep sincerity of desire to render some assistance, however humble, to the British Government in its hour of need. Last but not least, from beyond the borders of India have been received generous offers of assistance from the Nepal Durbar. The military resources of the State have been placed at the disposal of the British Government and the Prime Minister has offered a sum of three lakhs to the Viceroy for the purchase of machine guns or field equipment for British Gurkha Regiments proceeding overseas in addition to large donations from his private purse to the Prince of Wales' Fund and the Imperial Indian Relief Fund. To the 4th Gurkha Rifles, of which the Prime Minister is Honorary Colonel, the Prime Minister has offered thirty thousand rupees for the purchase of machine guns in the event of their going on service. The Dalai Lama of Tibet has offered one thousand Tibetan troops for service under the British Government. His Holiness also states that Lamas innumerable throughout length and breadth of Tibet are offering prayers for success of British Army and for happiness of souls of all victims of war."

This message when read in the Houses of Parliament aroused the greatest enthusiasm and steps were taken to have it circulated throughout the whole Empire.

During the many months of war which followed there was no diminution in the stream of offers of all kinds that poured in on His Excellency, and speaking in the House of Commons on the 20th October, 1915, the Secretary of State for India observed :—

"Besides the Chiefs mentioned last year, the Rulers of Nawanagar, Rajkot, Baria, Jamkhandi, Akalkot, Savanur, Barwani, Loharu and Wankaner have been permitted to go on active service in one or other of the spheres of operations.

"In addition to the Imperial Service Troops originally selected from among those offered, contingents from the following States have also been accepted for service in India or abroad :—Junagadh, Khairpur, Nawanagar, Bhavnagar, Janjira, Tehri, Bahawalpur, Maler Kotla, Sirmur, Bhopal and Idar.

"Three hospital ships, equipped and maintained from unofficial sources, have left the shores of India—the 'Loyalty,' given jointly by a number of Ruling Chiefs; the 'Madras' given by the Madras War Fund; and the 'Bengali' given by the people of Bengal. The last was most unfortunately wrecked on its way to the Persian Gulf; the first two have been continuously employed this year in carrying sick and wounded between India and the theatres of war.

"The Nizam of Hyderabad has offered 60 lakhs for the expenses of one of his Imperial Service Regiments, which has gone to the front, and of the Cavalry Regiment of the Indian Army of which he is Honorary Colonel. The Maharaja of Mysore, besides the 50 lakhs he had already given, has offered the services of his State in many other practical ways. The Maharaja Sindhia of Gwalior, whose health has prevented him from going to the front, has made further munificent gifts in money and in kind including a motor ambulance fleet and six armoured aeroplanes. The Begum of Bhopal, in addition to large contributions to Relief Funds and other services, has sent 500 Korans for sick and wounded Moslem soldiers. The Gaekwar of Baroda gave 5 lakhs of rupees for the purchase of aeroplanes. The Maharajas of Kashmir and Patiala and the Jam of Nawanagar, besides other services, are jointly maintaining

hospital for officers in a house at Staines which His Highness the Jam has given for the purpose."

* * * * *

The value of these demonstrations of loyalty and generosity on the part of the Ruling Chiefs, both in their material results and in their effect on the popular feeling in India towards the war, has been incalculable.

Udaipur
Arbitration
Committee.

In November 1912 the Viceroy in his banquet speech at Udaipur referred to the relations subsisting between the Udaipur Durbar and its Sardars, and expressed the opinion that, just as the power of the British Crown in India finds its surest support in the allegiance of the Feudatory Princes, so the Chiefs in their turn should rely mainly upon the devotion of their Nobles, the Arakan-i-Daulat or "Pillars of the State," and that just as the King-Emperor selects the Princes of India as the recipients of his special favour, so the Chiefs should conciliate and treat with special consideration their hereditary Nobles. In July 1913 His Highness the Maharana of Udaipur approached the Viceroy with a suggestion that a committee of two Ruling Chiefs (nominated by His Excellency) should be appointed to consider the relations existing between the Udaipur Durbar and the Jagirdars of the State. His Excellency approved the idea of the matter being referred to a committee, but advised His Highness that, in order that the Sardars might repose full confidence in the impartiality of the committee, a British Officer should also be added to it as a delegate and representative of the Viceroy in the discussion. The Maharana accepted the advice of His Excellency, and in 1914 a committee consisting of Their Highnesses the Maharaja of Indore and the Maharao of Kota, and Lieutenant-Colonel H. L. Showers, C.S.I., C.I.E., was formed. Owing to the illness of Lieutenant-Colonel Showers, who was compelled to proceed to England on leave, the work of the committee is at present in abeyance.

Railway projects in
Native States.

In June 1912 the Patiala Durbar applied for sanction to the construction of a metre gauge line from Patiala *via* Samana and Narwana to Hansi, with the object of increasing direct communication with the capital, of opening up a large area of State territory, and, incidentally, of effecting a shorter route to Bombay. The Railway Board were opposed to the project for the same reasons which had led to the rejection of the proposal previously submitted by the Durbar for a metre gauge railway from Patiala to Jakhal and Hissar, namely, that it would seriously affect vested interests and would not prove a profitable speculation for the State.

As a result of discussion between the Durbar and the President of the Railway Board, however, the Durbar accepted a scheme of light 2' 6" gauge railways proposed by the President, which were designed to open out the State and which would act as feeders to the existing lines and not compete with them. At the same time the Maharaja wrote: "I should like to observe that on principle there should be no bar in the way of the development of an independent State merely because the lines to be constructed * * * come in competition with the existing main lines. If I may be allowed to say so, I feel that in a question of this kind the other lines have really no say".

This letter was followed shortly by the submission by the Durbar of a revised and considerably more ambitious scheme which, in addition to two metre gauge lines, included two competitive broad gauge lines. Steps were at once taken to ascertain the views of the railway companies who would be affected, and the Durbar were informed that, while the scheme would receive the most sympathetic consideration of the Government of India, it was not possible to sanction the proposals in all their details, that objections might be raised by existing interests to some of the proposed lines, and that Government could not as a matter of course disregard those interests, inasmuch as this would be opposed to the general rule which obtains both in Native States and in British India, *viz.*, that before sanctioning new railways existing railway interests are factors which must be taken into consideration; the Durbar might, however, rest assured that although a special exception to this general principle could not be made in their favour, the Government of India would endeavour to smooth away any difficulties which might arise.

In 1908 the Government of India recommended to the Secretary of State that the necessary legislation should be undertaken in order to enable subjects of Native States, while retaining their primary allegiance to their States of origin, to obtain the status and privileges of British subjects in British India and the United Kingdom and so become eligible for admission to certain services in India, admission to which was under the existing law confined to British subjects. The matter presented some difficulty and was further discussed in connection with the formation of the Legislative Council for the Central Provinces and the constitution of the new Governorship of Bengal. Ultimately, it was decided to deal with the question in the Government of India (Amendment) Bill, in which the following draft clauses were inserted :—

Eligibility of Rulers and subjects of Native States for appointment under the Crown in and outside India, and for nomination to Legislative Councils.

8. (1) "Subject to any rules made by the Governor-General in Council with the approval of the Secretary of State in Council, any person who is a Ruler or subject of any State in India shall be eligible to become a candidate for, and to be appointed to, any office, place or employment under the Crown in India, and to be nominated a member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General or of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor or Chief Commissioner, anything in section 32 of the Government of India Act, 1858, or any other Act to the contrary notwithstanding. Rules made under this section shall not be subject to repeal or alteration by the Governor-General in Legislative Council
- (2) Every order made before the commencement of this Act, nominating the Ruler or a subject of any State in India to be a member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General or of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, or Chief Commissioner, shall be deemed to have been lawfully made.
9. The admission to the Civil Service of India of persons other than British subjects born within His Majesty's dominions of parents likewise born within those dominions shall, notwithstanding anything contained in any other enactment, be subject to such restrictions as, with the advice and assistance of the Civil Service Commissioners, the Secretary of State in Council may think fit to prescribe, and all such restrictions shall be included in the regulations made under section 32 of the Government of India Act, 1858 "

The matter is still under consideration.

TITLES COMMITTEE AND ARRANGEMENTS MADE FOR REGISTERING TITLES, ETC

An Inter-Departmental Committee was appointed by the Viceroy in 1911 to enquire into the adequacy of the means at the disposal of Government for recognising public service, the suitability of the Indian titles granted by Government and other cognate questions. The deliberations of the Committee resulted in recommendations being made for an increase in the number of appointments to the Indian Orders, for the extension of the Imperial Service Order to India, for a wider distribution of the Kaiser-i-Hind Medal for public services and for the adoption of various measures connected with the grant of Indian titles.

In accordance with the Committee's recommendations, in respect of Indian titles, it was decided (i) that courtesy or family titles, such as Kumar, Maharaj-Kumar, Rai, Rao, Khan, Diwan, Sardar, Thakur, etc., should be eliminated from the category of those ordinarily granted by Government though, in certain circumstances and under certain restrictions, their use might be *recognised* by Government; (ii) that the higher titles of Maharaja-dhiraja, Maharaja Bahadur, Maharaja, etc., should be given very sparingly and only to persons of good family who might be in a position suitably to maintain them; (iii) that there should be a more liberal distribution of the lower titles of Khan Bahadur, Rai Bahadur, etc., a fair share of the increased distribution being reserved for non-officials; (iv) that the grant of such titles to the subjects of Ruling Chiefs should be made with greater freedom than heretofore on the recommendation of, or with the previous approval of, the

Chief concerned; (v) that an annual pension of R100 should be attached to the grant of the literary titles of Mahamahopadhyaya and Shams-ul-Ulama; (vi) that a distinctive badge should be granted to the holders of the titles of Diwan, Sardar, Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur and Khan, Rai, Rao and Sardar Sahib

A new title of Aggamahapandita was instituted, corresponding to the literary titles of Mahamahopadhyaya and Shams-ul-Ulama, for conferment on Buddhist scholars in Burma rendering eminent services in the promotion of oriental learning, with special reference to Pali.

Measures were also taken with the object of checking the unauthorised use of titles, and the Government of India, on the recommendation of the Committee, decided to give facilities to Indian gentlemen who wished to register Armorial Bearings in India. Local Governments were informed that the Foreign and Political Department would, on application, register Armorial Bearings granted by the College of Arms, and that gentlemen wishing to apply to the College for new bearings or for the assignment of differences in existing arms, should be advised to transmit their applications through the Local Government or Administration to the Foreign and Political Department of the Government of India, which would supply the College of Arms with such information as it might require.

CEREMONIALS.

Owing to the greatly increased frequency of visits of Ruling Chiefs to the Headquarters of Government at Simla and Delhi, the question arose in May 1913 of their position in regard to Viceregal Levees. The point was submitted to the King who expressed the wish that, if Ruling Chiefs are present at the Headquarters of Government when the Viceroy holds a Levee, they should take the opportunity afforded of attending and paying their respects to His Majesty's representative. As regards the procedure to be followed, His Majesty directed that Chiefs should be received separately in private audience by His Excellency just before the ceremony, and should occupy positions during the Levee on the left of, and slightly behind, the Viceroy.

These orders have been made known to Ruling Chiefs as occasion has arisen.

Their Imperial
Majesties' visit
to India and the
Coronation Durbar
at Delhi.

Of all the noteworthy events of the past five years none perhaps was more memorable or more far-reaching in its effects on the political situation in India than the visit of Their Imperial Majesties to India and the holding of the Coronation Durbar at Delhi. A full account of the visit has been published under the orders of the Government of India and it is unnecessary to deal with it in this memorandum. It is sufficient to note that the arrangements for the visit and particularly for the great function at Delhi imposed a heavy burden of responsibility both on the Durbar Committee, under the presidency of Sir John Hewett, and also on the Viceroy, who personally supervised every detail from the time when the King-Emperor announced his intention of visiting his Indian dominions to the day when Their Majesties sailed from Bombay on their homeward journey. This period was one of constant anxiety and unremitting toil for all concerned, but the result more than justified every expectation. The arrangements both for Their Majesties' journeys in India and for the great ceremonies at Delhi, Bombay and Calcutta were complete and perfect in every detail, and the spirit of fervent loyalty awakened by the King-Emperor's presence among his Indian feudatories and subjects bore remarkable fruit in the troubled days that followed.

GENERAL.

The Political Department has, since its institution, been under the direction as Secretary of the Honourable Mr. Wood, C.I.E., an officer of proved ability and experience, and under his supervision the creation of this special branch of the Foreign and Political Department has been more than justified by results. It has afforded greater facilities for intercommunication between the Government of India and the Ruling Princes and Chiefs, and from a sentimental point of view, which should not be ignored, it has removed from the latter the stigma of having to deal as aliens with a "Foreign" Department.

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